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TEACHING ENGLISH

A HANDBOOK FOR TEACHERS

By

C. S. BHANDARI

V. A. HINKLEY

S. K. RAM

*English Language Teaching Institute
Allahabad*



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LONGMANS, GREEN AND CO. LTD.

48, GROSVENOR STREET, LONDON W.1

And at CAPE TOWN, CROYDON (AUSTRALIA), HONG KONG,
KUALA LUMPUR AND TORONTO

First published 1961
Reprinted 1962 (twice)

Price Rs. 2.50

© *Orient Longmans Ltd. 1961*

PRINTED IN INDIA
BY P. K. GHOSH AT EASTEND PRINTERS
3 DR SURESH SARKAR ROAD, CALCUTTA 14

PREFACE

THIS book is intended mainly for teachers of English in the Junior High School although teachers in the higher classes will also find it useful. It covers nearly all aspects of English teaching in our schools and aims at giving concrete guidance instead of dealing in detail with the theoretical aspects of teaching English as a foreign language. It does not claim to be and should not be regarded as a comprehensive treatise on methods of teaching English. It is essentially a book of suggestions illustrating how some of the difficult items in the syllabus for the first three years are to be taught, how oral work, reading, writing, and composition are to be handled and how tests and examination question-papers are to be constructed. We feel confident that if teachers follow the suggestions offered in this book intelligently, they will be able to develop an effective technique and a rewarding method of teaching English.

In the writing of some of the earlier chapters of this book we received valuable help from Mr J. M. Ure, British Council Education Officer for Northern India, and Sri D. D. Joshi, tutor at this Institute, and we are grateful to them. We are also grateful to Dr J. A. Noonan of the University of London for some very useful suggestions and his interest and encouragement at all times.

C. S. Bhandari
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INTRODUCTION

IN the past English was taught in India as a mother tongue and it was the medium of instruction for the teaching of all other subjects. There were ample opportunities for the pupils to use English outside the classroom; in these circumstances, the methods and techniques used in its teaching were not of great importance, since any method would bring at least some success. Even until recently, in spite of the fact that English was no longer the medium of instruction and that the time devoted to teaching it had been reduced, the old methods continued to be followed. That, more than any other single factor, was responsible for the general deterioration in the standard of attainment. Many teachers continued to use old-fashioned methods, concentrating on formal grammar and translation, because apparently no one realised that an entirely new approach was needed. They rushed rapidly from one stage to another in a haphazard and unsystematic way without establishing the essentials of the language. The child was neither given a chance to assimilate the material taught nor did he have time to develop a language sense.

The U.P. Government was among those who were concerned at the falling standards of English, and it made attempts to improve the situation with the financial aid of the Nuffield Trust and the technical assistance of the British Council. It set up an English Language Teaching Institute at Allahabad in December 1956. This Institute was the first of its kind in Asia. On its Diploma Courses of four months' duration and its shorter Summer Courses, it has trained a large number of teachers, headmasters, principals, lecturers of training colleges and inspecting officers in modern techniques of teaching English as a foreign language. The majority of these teachers and officers have gone back to their institutions and areas considerably enlightened and have enthusiastically started to put these new ideas into practice.

The Institute has not contented itself only with training personnel, but has also tackled the problem of teaching English on other fronts. It has produced a detailed graded structural syllabus for the Junior High School and helped the Intermediate Board and the Department of Education, U.P., to introduce some

much-needed reforms in the examination question-papers in English. In addition, it has produced course books, supplementary readers and a series of books of drills and exercises in English for the guidance of teachers, a Pronouncing Vocabulary of English, wall pictures, flash cards and gramophone records. The reports of the teachers trained by the Institute who are applying the new techniques in the field are very encouraging, a fact which is corroborated by the inspecting officers. The improvement is now being felt.

The Institute has also prepared a detailed draft syllabus for the High School classes, which is integrated with the Junior High School syllabus and which includes the essentials of the language to form a sound basis for further study of English.

Although the syllabus for the Junior High School has set before the teachers a definite programme of work, they need some detailed guidance. We cannot expect an ill-equipped and poorly qualified teacher to teach the material in the syllabus effectively. In response to widespread demand, the Institute has, therefore, prepared this handbook for teachers of English. What follows is a collection of hints and suggestions for the teaching of English, particularly in the early stages, because these are the most important stages in learning a second language. This should be read in conjunction with the detailed syllabus for the Junior High School and also the teaching materials and equipment produced by the Institute.

It is hoped that these suggestions will be adequate. Comments from teachers in the field will be welcome, and if there appears a need for a more detailed treatment of the subject the Institute will gladly undertake it.

In a book of this size it is only possible to give hints and outlines of the more technical aspects of language teaching and learning, but the reader is referred to standard works on these points where necessary.

I

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

What is language?

Language is a system. A system is a 'complex whole'; it is 'a set of connected parts or things'. Language is a complex whole like the human body. The system of the body functions through different organs such as the heart, lungs, brain, ears and eyes. These various organs are interconnected and work in co-ordination. Similarly, the system of a language functions through sounds, words and structures. These are integrated with one another and constitute the complex organic whole which is language. When someone says, '*My friend is reading a book,*' he uses language; that is, he uses sounds (m, ai, f, r, e, n, d, z, r, i:z, d, i ŋ, ə, b, u, k), words (*my, friend, is, reading, a, book*) and an accepted sentence pattern (SvVO). He could not communicate if he were to use only one of the elements of language, that is, sounds or words or structures.

Language is a system of symbols. The railway-guard uses certain symbols—the green flag, the green lamp, the red flag and the red lamp. The train does not start till the driver sees the guard showing the green flag or the green lamp, for they are symbols of '*All clear. Go*'. The train, however, stops or does not start if the guard shows the red flag or the red lamp, for they denote, '*Danger, Stop*'. This system works effectively because the symbols used are known to both the guard and the driver. The system of language, similarly, works through symbols, the symbols being words. Language functions effectively when the symbols used are known to both the speaker and the listener, the writer and the reader. The symbols of language—words—are very varied and complex.

These symbols have a two-fold aspect. They have sound, and they have meaning. For communication it is necessary that there should be a meaning attached to the sound or sounds constituting a symbol. For example, *table*, consisting of the sounds t, ei, b, l, is a symbol of English because the users of the language have given a meaning to it; but *batle*, which consists of the same sounds, is not a symbol of English because no meaning has been given to it by the users of the language.

The English language, like any other living language, is not static. It is constantly changing and developing. New words are being coined (*blurb*; *brunch*); words from other languages are being absorbed in it (*blitz*; *sputnik*); and forms are changing (*whom* is being replaced by *who*).

From a study of language and its behaviour two important points emerge, which have a direct bearing on the teaching of English:

(i) Language is a system and so it should be taught and learnt as a system. In the initial stage, however, the system has to be a limited one but it should admit of gradual and systematic expansion. This emphasizes the importance of selection and grading.

(ii) Language is dynamic, not static. The grammar that is to be taught, therefore, should be one that describes the functioning of the language and not one that lays down rigid rules about its behaviour and use.

How is meaning conveyed in English?

The English language uses three important devices to convey meaning. They are (a) the order of words, (b) the forms of words and (c) function words.

In the sentence, *Hari's mother gave mangoes to my friends*, it is the order of words that indicates that *Hari's mother* was the giver and *my friends* were the recipients and not vice versa. Again, it is the position of *Hari's* before *mother* which shows that it was his mother (not anyone else's mother) who gave mangoes to my friends. The change in the physical form of *give* into *gave* denotes that the action was performed and completed in the past. The suffixes *-es* in *mangoes* and *-s* in *friends* show that there were more than one mango and more than one friend. In the sentence, *Hari's mother will give mangoes to my friends*, the function word *will* performs the same function as *gave* in the first sentence. Both indicate the time of the action—*gave* shows that the action was performed in the past and *will* shows that the action will be performed in the future. In the sentence, *Hari's mother may give mangoes to my friends*, *may* expresses the notion of possibility or permission according to whether *may* or *give* is stressed.

The symbols used in language have meaning but by themselves they do not convey the meaning of an utterance. The meaning is in the situation in which those symbols are used. The word *bear*, for example, has a number of meanings. It means *to endure*,

to suffer, to bring forth, and is also the name of a certain animal. When the speaker says, '*Does your lime tree bear much fruit?*' the listener understands that *bear* means *produce*. The various meanings of the word *bear* do not confuse the listener nor do they hinder or delay the process of communication because the meaning is derived from the context. Sounds, words and structures convey meaning when they are used by speakers in a particular situation. This emphasizes the importance of Situational Teaching.

II

THE STRUCTURAL APPROACH

Language Learning

The new technique of teaching English as a second language is based on sound linguistic principles. Linguistic science considers language learning to be analogous to learning a trade. The methods described here aim at teaching the pupils the essential tools of the language in the early stages of language learning. The tools can be mastered only by practising their use. An apprentice to a blacksmith does not waste time learning *about* the tools of his trade. The theory of this trade may be interesting to the learner but it is of no practical help to him at this stage. He learns the trade by *using* the tools through constant practice.

Similarly, if we want to teach our pupils to use a language, we should give them practice in using its tools, and we should realise that any theory we give them will be of no real assistance to them, however interesting it may be.

We must know what the tools of a language, in our case the tools of the English language, are so that we as teachers and the pupils as learners may use them and practise them. They are *sounds* (and, from a wider point of view, *stress, rhythm and intonation*), *words* and *structures*. We develop certain skills in using these tools, and these skills are (a) ability to understand the spoken language, (b) ability to speak the language, (c) ability to read the language with comprehension and (d) ability to write the language.

Structures

Among the tools of a language the most important are its structures. One of the great advances in the field of linguistic science (and of linguistic pedagogy) is the discovery that the word is much less important than the ways in which words are put together. Vocabulary thus assumes a secondary (although still important) position, while the structural pattern is the really important and fundamental thing. We communicate with one another not by using isolated sounds and words but by using combinations of words. Words are not, however, grouped together at random

while we speak or write. They are arranged in certain different orders according to the needs of the situation. For example, if we want to make a statement, the arrangement of words may be: SvV...—*The boy is running*; that is, the verb will follow the noun element. But to put a question, the arrangement will be different —vSV...; the verb may precede the noun element, e.g. *Is the boy running?* These different arrangements or patterns of words we call structures. Structures may be complete utterances or form part of a large pattern. For the sake of convenience we may distinguish the following:

Sentence Patterns: *He went to school. He has finished his breakfast. Did you go to school? Have you finished your breakfast?*

Sit down. Open the window. Touch your nose.

Phrase Patterns: *on the table; for six years; with a stick.*

Formulas (groups of words used regularly on certain occasions):
Good evening. Excuse me. Thank you.

Idioms (groups of words that must be learnt as a whole because it is not always possible to understand the meaning from a knowledge of the separate words): *in spite of; in order to; live from hand to mouth.*

Approach

We accept the findings of modern research regarding these patterns or structures as fundamental in language learning, and we consider that the approach to the problem should be through them. The approach involves selection and grading of the material to be taught. Coming back to our analogy of trade, we can say that although the apprentice will finally learn to use almost all the essential tools of his trade, some of them will be taught to him earlier and some later. In learning a language too, the learner will be taught some selected and graded material earlier and some later. So what we mean by the Structural Approach to English is teaching the learner certain selected structures in a certain order. It would not be correct to call the Structural Approach a *method* of teaching. It is not a method; it is an approach. Any method can be used with it. Methodology is concerned with the presentation of the selected and graded material. Teaching and learning are activities, and these processes will necessarily differ between one person and another, one place and another, one time and

another. There is no one best method, although we present here suggestions which, in our experience, enable the selected material to be taught effectively.

Selection

As has been said earlier, the essential tools are selected, but the selection is not made in a haphazard way. Selection involves an assessment of the ability of the average learner in average school conditions bearing in mind the age of the learner, the time given to the teaching of the subject, the capacity of the teachers and the availability of material. In the selection and grading of the structures account has to be taken of the fact that many structures have more than one meaning; that is, a structure can be used in more than one different situation. These meanings should also be selected and graded; as for example, the preposition *of* has more than one meaning:

*Of*₁—the legs of a table (connection between a part and a whole)

*Of*₂—a box of chalk; a glass of milk (connection between a container and what it contains)

*Of*₃—a friend of mine; a son of Ram's (connection between two persons)

We will have to select some or all of these for the earlier stages and then put them in a certain order. In making the selection, we follow certain principles. These principles are:

1. *Usefulness*

The usefulness of a structure depends partly on how frequently it occurs in both the spoken and the written language and partly on the basis it provides for the further building up of the language.

2. *Simplicity*

The simplicity of a structure depends on its form and meaning. For example, the structure, *I'm walking*, is not only simple in its form but also in its meaning; whereas the structure, *If I had gone to Agra, I would have seen the Taj*, is simple neither in form nor in meaning. Naturally therefore, we prefer to teach the former before the latter.

3. *Teachability*

One structure is more teachable than another if it can be more

easily demonstrated in a realistic situation. For example, *I'm walking* is more easily teachable than *I come to school at 10 every day* because we can actually demonstrate it by performing the action in the class, whereas *I come to school at 10 every day* cannot be demonstrated in a realistic situation. We will have to build a verbal situation in order to teach it:

I came to school at 10 yesterday.

I came to school at 10 the day before yesterday.

I came to school at 10 today.

I'll come to school at 10 tomorrow.

I come to school at 10 every day.

Grading

Grading means putting the teaching material in a suitable order. A mathematician, for instance, does not start with quadratic equations or the binomial theorem. He starts with elementary things. In the same way, we cannot start teaching English with the Present Perfect tense. We have to grade our material. The grading followed in the Junior High School syllabus is, in our experience, the best under the circumstances. It will be seen that this grading is gradual, and this is a very important principle of grading. Although a gradual grading of this kind means a restriction of the amount of the material to be taught, it is surely better to teach a comparatively small but useful amount of the language really well than to attempt to teach a larger amount without much success. To begin with, we first *identify* things and persons. Then we *locate* them in *space*. And, finally, we *fix* them in *time*.

Content and Content Words

Some people wrongly think that the Structural Approach to the teaching of English does not attach any importance to content and content words. Teaching would become dull and uninspiring and even impossible if this were so. Content words are very necessary to build up a useful vocabulary and also to practise the structures in which they can occur. But what kind of content words should we teach? Content vocabulary will spring from the particular situations used by the teacher to teach the items in the syllabus, and the principles for its selection are essentially the same as those for the selection of the structures—*usefulness*, *simplicity* and *teachability*.

These principles have been followed in the selection of the content words used in the *Read and Learn*, *Drills and Exercises*, *Read and Tell* and *Read for Fun* series produced by the English Language Teaching Institute, Allahabad.

Situational Teaching

A structure or a word becomes meaningful for the learner when it is used in an appropriate situation. The teacher should use a particular situation in order (a) to practise the structure and to relate it to its meaning and (b) to build up a vocabulary of content words. In the early stage, for example, the everyday classroom situation should be used and in that situation such words as *boy*, *girl*, *teacher*, *pupil*, *desk*, *table*, *pen*, *pencil*, *door*, *window* would naturally suggest themselves. The teacher should build appropriate situations by the use of objects in the classroom or outside, by gestures and actions, by the use of pictures, and by drawing on the blackboard.

The teacher must take the greatest care that the situation is in fact appropriate to a particular structure and that there is no possible chance of confusion. If, for example, the structure, 'I am putting a book on the table', is being taught, the action demonstrating this must be *performed* at the same time as the words are *spoken*. To complete the action before saying the words would indicate a different situation—'I have put the book on the table.'

Situations can be built up in the following ways:

1. *By Gestures and Actions*

Every and *all the* and *putting...into* and *taking...out of* can be taught in the following way:

The teacher points to each of the four green books lying on his table with the forefinger of his right hand and as he points to a book he says, 'This book is green.' Then he points to each of the four books in the same way in quick succession and says, 'Every book on my table is green.' He makes a sweeping movement of the arm to encircle all the four books (without pointing to individual books) and says, 'All the books on my table are green.'

The teacher takes a pencil in his hand and as he puts it into his pocket he says, 'I am putting my pencil into my pocket'; and as he takes it out of the pocket he says, 'I am taking my pencil out of my pocket.'

2. *By the Use of Pictures*

If the class consists of boys and the teacher has to teach *she*, *her*, etc., he can use a wall picture showing a boy and a girl. He can then point to the girl and the boy in turn and say:

That is Sita. She is a girl. That is Dinu. He is her brother.

3. *By Drawing on the Blackboard*

He is riding a horse can be shown by quickly drawing on the blackboard.

One of the essential features of Situational Teaching is the active participation of the pupils in the lesson. This is amply illustrated in Chapter VII.

The Oral Approach

In learning a language certain skills have to be developed. The skills are: *understanding* what is said, *speaking*, *reading* and *writing*. It seems that reading with comprehension will eventually be the most useful skill to develop for most learners, but almost all experts agree that proficiency in speech contributes to reading and writing. In the early stages greater emphasis should be laid on oral teaching but this does not mean that reading and writing should be neglected or postponed for too long.

III

THE SYLLABUS

It is a common thing for teachers to have to conform to a syllabus. This is due to a desire for uniformity. The education authorities have to face the problem of poorly equipped teachers. For such teachers detailed guidance is necessary. No two teachers can be expected to teach in exactly the same way. But although every individual teacher should have the opportunity of developing in his own way, some detailed guidance can be of considerable value. No teacher can go to his class without preparation and start teaching his pupils. The average teacher needs a detailed syllabus and guidance on how to use it. Such a syllabus has been in use in U.P. since 1956. As a result of research and experimentation and guided by the principles of usefulness, frequency, simplicity and teachability, the essential patterns of English have been selected and graded for teaching and set out in this syllabus. The difference between this syllabus and those used before is that the present syllabus gives definite guidance as to what to teach and in what order to teach it. It is an answer to the questions what language items must be introduced in the first three years of teaching English and in what order should these items be taught.

The content vocabulary suggests itself in the various structures and further suggestions are given at appropriate places. For instance, the content vocabulary—*letter, lesson, postcard, wall, football, hockey*, etc., is suggested for teaching point No. 25 in the syllabus, which deals with action verbs. For the teaching of the same point *Read and Learn, Book One* also suggests suitable content words in lesson 7—*Dinu in the Playground*.

Each item grows out of and recapitulates what has gone before and prepares the ground for what is coming next. For example, the Simple Present tense is introduced after the Present Continuous, Simple Past and Simple Future, which in a sense it summarizes, have been taught. Statement and question patterns are structurally very different and therefore, to avoid confusion, the teaching of question patterns is postponed to point No. 40 in the syllabus.

Chapter VII gives concrete guidance in regard to the teaching of some of the important points in the syllabus.

IV

GENERAL PLAN OF TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE FIRST THREE YEARS

SPEECH is the essence of language, and so the Oral Approach to the teaching of English is pedagogically sound. Wherever tried it has proved effective and produced good results. It does not, however, prescribe a method of teaching a language; it emphasizes oral teaching in the early stages of language learning. It is mainly by oral practice that correct language habits are formed and the learner gains command of the structural basis of the language.

The First Year

During the first three or four months of English the teacher concentrates on oral teaching, gradually initiating the pupils into the techniques of reading and writing. The teacher's aim is to teach the first forty structures in different physical situations so that the pupils can reproduce them automatically and fluently. These structures identify persons and objects in space and locate persons and objects, first in space and then in time. They include four different verb-forms, namely (a) the neutral form *am/is/are*, (b) the Present Continuous, (c) the Simple Future, and (d) the Simple Past.

The teacher demonstrates the use of a structure in different situations, and then guides the pupils to practise the structure. When it has been learnt it is written on the board, is read by the pupils and then copied by them. Reading and writing (their teaching is dealt with in Chapters VIII and XI) are very useful aids for reinforcing the language material already taught. The value of repetition cannot be exaggerated. It is the key-note to the successful teaching and learning of a foreign language.

During the first three or four months of oral teaching the teacher does not merely teach structures in isolation; he also introduces oral composition and helps pupils to produce three or four sentences in a sequence. For this purpose he uses wall pictures or builds up appropriate situations.

The teaching of reading does not begin with the teaching of the names of the letters of the alphabet (as is explained in Chapter

VIII). Preparatory reading during the first three or four months consists mainly of reading phrases and sentences from the blackboard and flash cards. Each word is taught as a complete whole and is not dissected into its component parts. In the third and fourth months of oral teaching short pieces consisting of three or four sentences are written on the board and read by the class. This paves the way for the introduction of the Reader in the fourth or fifth month.

Writing in the first three or four months is almost exclusively confined to copying from the blackboard. To begin with, single sentences, and then longer pieces, are copied.

The teacher must never forget the priorities of the four linguistic skills: the ability to understand English, the ability to speak English, the ability to read English and the ability to write English. Pupils should first be taught how to produce the structures orally, then how to read them and, finally, how to write them. *Pupils, in the initial stages, must never be asked to read or write words or structures with which they are not familiar*—they must never be asked to write what they have not learnt to say and read.

The Reader is introduced after the third or fourth month of oral teaching when the pupils can use orally, in different situations, the first forty structures of the syllabus. The first lesson of *Read and Learn, Book One* contains the first eight points of the syllabus. The pupils have already learnt to read all the words and structures included in it. Reading of the text should therefore be fluent and easy. The lessons also provide an excellent opportunity for reinforcing the points taught orally. Two periods a week should suffice for the Reader, the rest may be devoted to the teaching of the remaining points in the syllabus. Gradually, however, the gap between the points covered in the lessons of the Reader and the points taught orally will be narrowed as several points are dealt with in a single reading lesson.

There will be no teaching of formal grammar in the first three years of English. At no stage will the pupils be given the definitions of any grammatical categories. They may, however, be told the names of the different parts of speech, and a few other grammatical terms, as this knowledge will help the teacher to frame suitable language exercises for the pupils without giving long explanations. These names can be taught by referring to their equivalents in Hindi. The teacher should, however, explain to the pupils in their mother

tongue, particularly in the first year, what they are required to do in each of the exercises given at the end of a lesson in the Reader.

The Second Year

During the first month or two, the teacher again concentrates on oral teaching, but reading and writing are not ignored. Pupils read groups of sentences from the board (from sets of substitution tables, etc.) and write short pieces of composition based on Exercises in Continuous Speech from *Drills and Exercises in English, Book Two*. The Reader is introduced in the second or third month, and after its introduction reading from the course book is interspersed with oral teaching.

Towards the end of the fifth month, the supplementary reader is introduced to reinforce the language material already taught in different situations.

Dictation, the time-honoured exercise for teaching and testing spelling, should be used sparingly. It should never be used before adequate preparation. The difficult words are written on the board and studied by the pupils. The passage is read through once and then dictated slowly. Repetition is avoided; the teacher pauses at the end of meaningful word-groups only.

Composition, at this stage, becomes longer. Pupils describe situations and relate very short, simple stories but still only after adequate preparation and under detailed guidance.

The Third Year

The teaching in the third year will be on the same lines as in the second year. During the first month of oral teaching, different types of language exercises, both oral and written, will also be done. (They may be based on Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English, Book Three*.) The aim throughout will be to drill the new points taught. The supplementary reader may be introduced in the second month.

Poetry

A few simple poems may be taught in the second and third years of English. These poems should, however, not be taught for the sake of language, but for their rhythm and melody. The pupils should be taught how to read them. They should also memorize these poems and learn to recite them. Teachers should not give any language exercises on these poems.

V

SPOKEN ENGLISH

THE Oral Approach to the teaching of a language demands that the teacher's own pronunciation should be as accurate as possible. Pupils learn by imitating the teacher's way of speaking. If he makes mistakes, they will copy them, and probably add others of their own.

Many teachers in rural areas have very little chance of hearing English accurately spoken. They should take every opportunity of listening to the radio, gramophone records and tape recordings. Above all, they should have a good knowledge of the organs of speech and how sounds are produced. This information together with a description of 'Received Pronunciation', which is used widely by educated people and serves as the most useful model, is readily available in such works as:

- Paul Christopherson, *An English Phonetics Course* (Longmans).
Daniel Jones, *The Pronunciation of English* (O.U.P.).
Peter MacCarthy, *English Pronunciation* (Heffer).
Ida Ward, *The Phonetics of English* (Heffer).

It is obviously too much to expect every teacher to speak impeccably in the way described by phoneticians. But it is essential to aim at a standard which will make for intelligibility in as wide a sphere as possible. The foreign learner of English has to acquire certain entirely new speech habits. Frequently he is influenced by the highly developed habits of his own native language. This is partly why people with different mother tongues make different mistakes when learning English. The aim in a country like India must be for a Bengali speaker, for example, to understand and be understood by a Tamil speaker or a Punjabi or an Assamese. Not only must this intelligibility exist within the country, but the Indian speaker of English must be able to understand and make himself understood by English speakers from other parts of the world.

Learning to speak is largely a matter of habit. Bad habits once acquired are very difficult to eradicate. Therefore it is essential to instil correct speech habits from the very beginning.

However, correct pronunciation is not merely a matter of making the individual sounds correctly. It is how these sounds combine and change when used in words and sentences that is of the greatest importance. So, in addition, the teacher must master also the Stress, Rhythm and Intonation of Spoken English.

These topics will be dealt with later in more detail. One word of warning: this technical knowledge is required by the teacher, but he will have no occasion to teach his pupils phonetics.

The Sounds of English

Spelling can be confusing. In English the same letters can stand for several different sounds (*cough, enough, ought, thorough, though*) and the same sound may be represented by different spellings: (*field, key, people, police, receive, seat, seed, these*). A set of unambiguous symbols is required so that we can identify, describe and discuss these sounds. The same phonetic symbols are used here as will be found in *An English Pronouncing Dictionary* (Jones) and *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (Hornby, Gatenby and Wakefield) which the teacher is advised to consult when in difficulty and doubt.

The examples of English sounds given here have been taken as far as possible from *Read and Learn, Book One*, the remainder from *Books Two and Three*. Note the spelling varieties:

Pure Vowels

Phonetic Symbol

Examples

i:	feet, field, he, machine, please, people, priest, receipt, these
i	begin, build, busy, carried, city, houses, kitchen, ladies, market, women
e	any, get, head, said, says, friend, guest
æ	man, hand, have
a:	arm, aunt, clerk, guard, heart
ɒ	hot, gone, want
ɔ:	broad, door, four, more, ought, tall, taught
u	book, could, put, woman

u:	beautiful, fruit, group, move, new, rule, shoe, to
ʌ	blood, come, does, month, touch, up
ɔ:	bird, her, heard, journey, turn, work
ə	arithmetic, beggar, brother, breakfast, camera, colour, companion, compartment, distance, doctor, forget, important, machinery, melon, moment, pleasure, surprising, tortoise

Diphthongs

Phonetic Symbol	Examples
ei	day, eight, great, late, rain, they
ou	though, boat, go, nose
ai	bite, eye, my, night, tie
au	now, out
ɔi	boy, noise
iə	deer, fear, here
ɛə	care, hair, there, wear
uə	poor, sure, you're

Notes: 1. The principal difference in the pairs i: / i, ɔ: / ɒ, u: / u, ɔ:/ə is one of quality and not of length. Although generally speaking the vowels i:, ɔ:, u:, ɔ: and all the diphthongs are longer than the vowels i, e, æ, ɒ, u, ʌ, ə, length is a relative matter. These long sounds are longer when final or followed by a voiced consonant (e.g. the i: sound is longer in *see* and *seed* than in *seat*).

2. Avoid making the short vowels too short and producing an un-English staccato effect.

3. Avoid tenseness in the production of these sounds. Relax the organs of speech.

4. Concentrate on those sounds which give most difficulty (e.g. ɔi, ei, ou, ɔi, ɛə).

5. Do not be misled by the spelling. The sounds i and ə, for example, which occur with such frequency in unstressed syllables are represented by a great variety of spellings.

Consonants

Phonetic Symbol	Examples	
p	pen	cap
t	tɛə	not
k	kill	back
b	bed	rub
d	dog	food
g	get	bag
m	man	come
n	net	seen
ŋ	sing	donkey (not found initially)
l	leg	stool
r	ran	friend
f	fall	laugh
v	village	save
θ	thief	mouth
ð	then	bathe
s	say	class
z	zoo	has
ʃ	shop	fish
ʒ	measure	usual
h	his	hand
w	wall	sweet
j	yes	few
tʃ	chair	catch
dʒ	jump	large

Notes: 1. It is essential to know the difference between *voiced* (vibration of the vocal cords) and *voiceless* (no vibration) sounds.

2. Some degree of unvoicing occurs in the case of final voiced consonants. Neglect of this, particularly if the preceding vowel is also shortened, produces an unnatural, clipped effect.

3. Concentrate on those sounds which give most difficulty (e.g. f, v, θ, ð, ʒ, w, j).

Sometimes it is consonant clusters that give difficulty (e.g. s + another consonant as in *sky, sleep, smile, stop*).

Ear Training and Speech Training

If the teacher has a good pronunciation and his pupils copy him accurately there should not be much need for many lessons specifically devoted to pronunciation. When such lessons are required they should be of short duration and frequent: it is a good idea to devote about ten minutes at the beginning or towards the end of a lesson every day until the particular point is established. The following procedure should be adopted.

1. Train the pupils to *hear* the sound accurately (this can best be done by training them to distinguish between similar but distinctive sounds).

2. Train them to *make* the sounds correctly.

3. *Practise* until their use becomes automatic and unconscious.

If, for example, your pupils have difficulty with the *ɔ:* sound (the usual mistake is to use the *a:* sound instead), first get them to distinguish between the two sounds. You can do this by writing words in two columns on the blackboard to illustrate the difference. The pairs of words should differ only in the sounds to be distinguished:

1	2
born	barn
cord	card
form	farm
port	part

The teacher should read these words out to the class, first reading down the columns (same sound), then across the columns (contrasted sounds). This should be done several times to give the pupils practice in hearing the distinction in sounds so that their ears grow accustomed to them.

This can be tested by reading out a word from the blackboard and having the students write down the number of the column it comes from.

This ear training must be followed by speech training. First

the teacher reads the words again (first down, then across) getting the pupils to repeat them after him, both in chorus and in small groups or individually.

In the event of any difficulty he must concentrate on getting his pupils to form the sounds correctly (e.g. by insisting on the correct tongue position or lip position as the case may be).

Next follows intensive practice.

The type of ear training exercise described above can be used for all types of sounds; for example, to illustrate the difference between *t* and *θ* or *s* and *ʃ* :

1	2	1	2
taught	thought	said	shed
tin	thin	sign	shine
tree	three	ass	ash
torn	thorn	mess	mesh

Sometimes more than two sounds may be used for this purpose:

1	2	3	4	1	2	3
(i:)	(i)	(e)	(æ)	(v)	(b)	(w)
bead	bid	bed	bad	vie	buy	why
peak	pick	peck	pack	veer	beer	weir
seat	sit	set	sat	vest	best	west

Some further examples of ear training exercises which may be devised in accordance with the standard and ability of the pupils are given below.

1. The teacher says pairs of words, some differing in one sound (*part—port*, *sheep—ship*, *sing—sink*), and some exactly the same (*here—hear*). If the two words are different, the pupils write *D*; if they are the same, they write *S*.

2. The teacher dictates a list of minimal pairs (*man—men*, *coat—caught*, *tree—three*, etc.). He then writes them on the board and the pupils correct their lists. Next the teacher says one word from each pair and the pupils underline this word in their lists.

3. The teacher gives some key-words containing the sounds to be differentiated and numbers them: 1—*θ* sound as in *thumb*, 2—*ð* sound as in *then*, 3—*t* sound as in *table*, 4—*d* sound as in *door*. He says these sounds clearly several times. He then says a list of words each containing one or other of these sounds (*thick*,

turn, breathe, thorn, send, those, doze, sent, etc.). The pupils write down the number of the sound that occurs.

4. The teacher writes two key-words on the blackboard each at the top of a column. He then writes a word in one column leaving the other column blank. The pupils either say or write the missing words:

1	2	1	2
deed	did	fail	veil
feast	—	—	vast
péeł	—	feel	—
—	rich	—	view
—	slip	fine	—

5. If it is possible to have lists of words printed on sheets, further exercises are possible:

(a) Four or five words closely related in sound are given (e.g. *caught, cot, cut, cart, cat*). The teacher then reads one of the words and the pupils underline the word.

(b) Pupils are given a list of words and told to mark those containing the same sound as that underlined in the word at the head of the list:

build—bird, bid, bite, bell, busy

These exercises, of course, also involve reading ability.

In these exercises it is preferable to use words familiar to the pupils. This is not always possible particularly in the early stages. Where it is not possible, do not waste time trying to explain the meanings of words.

Stress

Sounds are produced when the air stream coming from the lungs is modified in various ways as it passes through the organs of speech. The strength of this air stream varies according to the amount of effort we make to produce it; similarly the organs of speech may be used more or less forcibly. This gives rise to different degrees of stress. These variations in stress are heard as variations in loudness.

It is convenient to distinguish two main degrees of stress, strong and weak. For convenience we often call the former 'stressed

syllables' and the latter 'unstressed'. A stressed syllable sounds louder than the others.

In English words of two syllables, the stress may fall on either of the syllables: in *'better*, *'finish*, *'carry*, it is on the first; in *mis'take*, *bel'lieve*, *re'ply*, it is on the second.

Sometimes a difference of meaning results from different stress, e.g. *'conduct* (n), *con'duct* (v); *'protest* (n), *pro'test* (v); *'frequent* (adj), *fre'quent* (v).

In compound words both elements are often stressed: *'six'teen*, *'up'stairs*, *'pre'paid*. But when used in sentences the stress pattern may change under the influence of rhythm:

'aged six'teen but *'sixteen 'shillings*;
the 'room up'stairs but *the 'upstairs 'room*.

Words of three syllables may have the stress on the first, second or third syllable: *'finishing*, *bel'ieving*, *under'stand*.

Words of more than three syllables generally have their stress on the penultimate or the antepenultimate syllable. In these cases it is necessary to distinguish secondary stress which occurs on one of the first two syllables: *ˌedu'cation*, *ˌproˌnunci'ation*, *ˌdemo'cratic*.

In sentences some words are more important than others: these are stressed, and the others lose their stress. Generally nouns, adjectives, main verbs and adverbs are stressed; while articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions and conjunctions are not, e.g.:

The 'train 'stopped at a 'number of 'stations.

'Which are the 'winter 'months in 'India?

The 'crow is a 'clever 'bird but the 'koel is 'cleverer than the 'crow.

It will be seen that generally content words are stressed while structure words are not. A certain number of structure words have two or more forms—one a *strong* form used when there is stress on the word, and one or more *weak* forms used when there is no stress. As these words are usually not stressed, their weak forms are very commonly found and it is essential to realise their importance.

The commonest of these words are the following:

Articles: *a, an, the*

Pronouns: *me, we, he, she, him, her, his, us, you, your, them, that, who*

Verbs: *am, is, are, was, were, have, has, had, can, shall, will, could, should, would, do, does, must*

Prepositions: *at, for, from, of, to*

Conjunctions: *and, as, but, or, than, that*

Teachers should consult the books mentioned above for details and examples of these weak forms.

It is often possible for a learner to pronounce all the sounds of English correctly, yet what is said still sounds unlike English. This is often because the stress is misplaced. Stress is a vital element in correct pronunciation and great attention to it is essential. When in doubt, consult a dictionary.

Rhythm

In connected speech the tendency in English is towards a rhythmic regularity of stresses. In the sentence, *The ¹boy in the ²corner of the ³room is ⁴holding a ⁵red ⁶book*, there are six stresses. The number of unstressed syllables between stresses varies from none to three—*x X x x X x x x X x X x x X X*. In saying this sentence the time taken to go from 1 to 2, from 2 to 3, from 3 to 4, from 4 to 5, and from 5 to 6 is the same. To achieve this one obviously has to go faster between 2 and 3 than between 1 and 2, and 4 and 5; also faster over these than between 3 and 4; and quite slowly between 5 and 6.

Rhythm can be practised by reciting groups of structures of the same pattern:

(a) *'This is a 'book.*

There are the girls.

Why have you come?

When will she go?

Where do they live?

Go to the door.

Sit at the desk.

(b) *'That's a 'pen.*

Here's the box.

There's a dog.

Where's he gone?

What's she done?

Let me see.

Go to bed.

Singing songs and reciting poems also give useful practice. The teacher should help in the early stages by beating time or by banging on his table.

More advanced drills can be devised by constructing groups of sentences in which the number of unstressed syllables vary, yet the sentences have to be recited regularly:

I don't think that it's true. (x X X x x X)

I can't believe that it's true. (x X x X x x X)

It's hard to believe that it's true. (x X x x X x x X)

Intonation

When we speak, by tightening or slackening the vocal cords we produce, quite unconsciously, variations in pitch. These variations in pitch—intonation—add special significance to what is said. If we say the sentence *Close the door* with a fall in pitch on the word *door*, then we are giving a very definite command. If, however, there is a rise in pitch on the word *door*, then the sense is that of a polite request.

As in other aspects of language learning, the influence of the mother tongue often leads to mistakes. For practical purposes there are three intonation patterns, or tunes, that the teacher of English should be able to control in his own speech, and insist on his pupils following:

Tune I. This has a falling tone on the most important syllable, and is normally used for

- (a) ordinary, definite statements:

Dinu is a schoolboy.

The farmers are working in the fields.

I went there yesterday morning.

- (b) questions requiring an answer other than 'Yes' or 'No' (i.e. questions beginning with such words as *Who, What, Which, When, Why, How, Where, Whose*):

What are they drinking?

Where will they sell their fish?

Which are the winter months in India?

- (c) commands:

Sit down.

Put the book on the table.

- (d) exclamations:

How sad!

What a lovely day!

Tune II. This has a rise in tone which begins on the most important

syllable and continues to the end of the utterance. It is usually used for

- (a) questions without question words (i.e. requiring the answer 'Yes' or 'No')

Is she your sister?

Are there many big buildings in Calcutta?

Do you ever see wild animals in the jungle near your farm?

- (b) requests, polite commands, and polite questions with question words:

Please tell us about it.

Come in.

Where are you going?

- (c) dependent sense groups:

When you're ready, we'll go. (Tune II followed by Tune I.)

Tune III. This has a fall followed by a rise and often denotes doubt, polite contradiction, or contrast:

(Is tomorrow a holiday?) No. I don't think so.

(The train leaves at five.) No. At six.

It wasn't me but Dinu.

General Hints

Prepare your teaching material from the point of view of all the above factors as carefully as in other respects. Make sure you know the correct pronunciation of every word you are going to use in a lesson, where the stresses come, how the rhythm moves regularly, and which intonation patterns are appropriate.

Speak naturally and do not shout.

Correct mistakes immediately to prevent the development of bad speech habits.

Do not waste time on points with which your pupils have no difficulty, but drill towards the end of the lesson those points which you have had to correct.

Say each new structure several times. Your pupils cannot be expected to recognize it after only one or two repetitions. Once the structure has been correctly established the teacher should say little, while the pupils practise its use intensively.

VI

TEACHING AIDS

IN days gone by, the teacher taught a chosen few by word of mouth, using very few aids. In our democratic age, however, education has become popular and widespread, and exclusively oral teaching, therefore, cannot be the key to successful pedagogy. Our aim in teaching English is to impart certain skills without making the process of teaching and learning monotonous. Teaching aids serve a two-fold purpose: (a) they keep the class lively and interested by introducing variety, and (b) they make teaching effective by drilling the language material in new situations till this material becomes automatic.

The teaching aids employed by the teacher of English are either visual or audio-visual. It is wrong to assume that all these aids are very expensive and beyond the means of an average Junior High School. Some of the most useful and effective aids can always be found even in the most poorly equipped schools, but they are not fully exploited and are used very rarely.

The Blackboard

The blackboard is a very important aid for teaching English. It is used for various purposes. In the first three or four months of oral teaching it is used for teaching pupils to read the words, phrases and sentences which they have learnt to use in speech. And after this the new language material is always presented on it to the class.

Reading from the board helps to fix in the mind the spelling of words and their order in phrases and sentences. Sketches depicting situations outside the classroom are also drawn on it. The ability to draw quickly on the board is one of the greatest assets of a teacher of English. For example, while drilling the use of *they* as a sequence signal (Point 13) the teacher draws the picture of a tank and shows two buffaloes in it. He also shows a man standing by the tank. He then describes the sketch and says, 'Those are buffaloes. They are his buffaloes. They are in that tank.' The drawings on the board should not, however, be elaborate.

Match-stick figures are recommended, for they can be drawn easily and quickly.

The Course Book (Text-book)

Unfortunately, the majority of teachers of English regard the course book as the be-all and end-all of English teaching. The result is that they spend too much time on the content of the lessons and not enough time on the language in which that content has been presented. The course book is merely an aid to language teaching. It helps to revise and reinforce the language material already taught. When the pupils can read and understand the language material used in a lesson, reading becomes interesting.

Supplementary Readers

Besides reinforcing the language material already taught, supplementary readers train pupils for reading in life which is mainly silent. This reading is essentially for content.

Wall Pictures

Wall pictures are an excellent teaching aid for they provide recreation and diversion by taking the pupils outside the classroom situation into the wider world. Incidentally, the pupils learn new words, such as *river-bank*, *farm*, *field*, etc. Wall pictures are essentially used for teaching composition. They can be used in a variety of ways:

(a) A scene of a picture may be described in the Present Continuous.

Example (Wall Picture 4—IN THE BAZAAR)

That boy is Dinu and that girl is Sita. They are in the sweet-shop. They are buying sweets from the sweet-seller. He is selling sweets to them.

(b) A scene of the picture may be described in the Simple Future. (The teacher will tell the class that the picture shows what the Sharma family will do in the bazaar tomorrow.)

Example (Wall Picture 4—IN THE BAZAAR)

Mrs Sharma will go to the vegetable shop tomorrow. Her servant will go there too. He will carry his basket to the bazaar. Mrs

Sharma will buy potatoes from the vegetable-seller. She will put the potatoes into her servant's basket.

(c) Similarly, a section of the picture may be described in the Simple Past. (The teacher will tell the class that the picture shows what the Sharma family did yesterday.)

Example (Wall Picture 4—IN THE BAZAAR)

Dinu and Sita went to the sweet-shop yesterday. They bought sweets from the sweet-seller. He sold sweets to them.

(d) Questions may be drilled through these pictures. The teacher points to a character or an action or a thing in the picture, supplies the key-words (given in brackets below) and the pupils ask questions and answer them.

Example (Wall Picture 4—IN THE BAZAAR)

Pupil A to B: (*Is*) Is that boy Dinu?

Pupil B: (*Answer*) Yes, he is.

Pupil B to C: (*Is, in*) Is he in the sweet-shop?

Pupil C: (*Answer*) Yes, he is.

Pupil C to D: (*Is, buying*) Is he buying sweets from the sweet-seller?

Pupil D: (*Answer*) Yes, he is.

(e) Stories may also be constructed from a series of pictures.

Flash Cards

Flash cards are used for preparatory reading. The cards are flashed before the class and the pupils read what is written on them, recognizing the words and interpreting them almost simultaneously. This helps the pupils to master the correct word-order and intonation-pattern. Flash cards can be made very easily. The writing on them should be in printscript. These cards may be used in different ways, e.g. for sentence-building, for matching words with objects, for giving orders, etc.

Gramophone Records

Gramophone records enable the pupils to listen to the flawless rendering of a lesson. They take the place of oral reading by the teacher. The teacher plays a record a few times and then asks the pupils to read the lesson. If they make mistakes, the record is

played again. The child is usually a better mimic than the teacher and these records, therefore, help greatly in establishing the correct habits of speech.

The above is not an exhaustive list of teaching aids. There are many other useful aids—objects in the classroom, actions and gestures, the radio, the filmstrip, etc., which can be used profitably.

VII

PRESENTATION OF THE MATERIAL

Of the four skills involved in language learning, understanding the spoken language and speaking it are basic to a full command of the language, and primary importance must therefore be given to oral teaching. Oral teaching with the aid of gestures, actions and pictures comes first; reading and writing follow. Moreover, when reading and writing have been introduced, they should not entail the use of any word or structure that has not already been established in oral teaching.

Emphasis on oral teaching should continue until the first 40 points in the syllabus have been taught. They will normally take three to four months.

As the pupils will imitate the pronunciation of the teacher, he must endeavour to perfect his own way of speaking in all respects—sounds, stress, rhythm and intonation.

The following are the main requirements on the part of the teacher for successful teaching:

He must be able to speak and write the language fluently and accurately, and he should be able to read aloud effectively. He should know how to present the material of a lesson and he should be able to organise classwork for the practice of the material.

In presenting any new teaching material the teacher must ask himself the following questions:

- (a) What is the function of the new words and structures being taught?
- (b) What are the learning problems involved?
- (c) How can this material be effectively presented?

Suppose the language material to be taught is the pair of prepositions, *in* and *on* (Point 10). There are many uses of these prepositions but here we have selected the commonest and the most useful ones.

IN, ON (Point 10)

We initiate the young pupil into English by teaching him how

to identify persons and objects in space—*This is my friend. That is your pen.* Next, he is taught how to fix persons and objects in space and the words used at the beginning are *here, there* and the prepositions *in* and *on*—*My pen is in my hand. Your friend is on the veranda.* *In* indicates that a person or thing is located in space inside something which has volume, e.g. *My pen is in my bag. Sita is in the room.* *On* is used to describe contact of a person or thing with a surface, horizontal or vertical, e.g. *Your book is on your table. The picture is on the wall.* This distinction, at the early stages, must always be clearly maintained. The teacher should first demonstrate and drill the use of *in* and *on* in realistic classroom situations.

Teaching IN and ON

Step I. The teacher points to his book (which he has already placed inside his bag) and his bag, and says (touching them in turn): 'This in my book. This is my bag. *My book is in my bag.*'

The teacher now points to his pen (which is in Dinu's box) and to Dinu's box. He addresses Dinu and says: 'That is my pen. That is your box. *My pen is in your box.*'

The teacher then points to Sita's handkerchief (which is in Dipu's hand) and to Dipu's hand which he holds up. He addresses Sita and says: '*Your handkerchief is in his hand.*'

The teacher repeats the three sentences containing *in* and then he points to the objects and the pupils say the appropriate sentences—*Your book is in your bag. Your pen is in his box. Her handkerchief is in his hand.*

Step II. The teacher now creates a number of different situations to practise the use of *in*. He suggests the key-word or words. He insists that the pupils should (a) point to the thing being described and (b) look towards the person they are talking to. The words and structures already taught should be revised.

Examples

(The key-words in brackets are supplied by the teacher.)
Pupil A to B: (*pencil, pocket*) Your pencil is in my pocket.
Pupil B to C: (*rubber, hand*) Her rubber is in your hand.

Pupil C to D: (*ball, basket*) That ball is in your basket.

Pupil D to E: (*friend, room*) My friend is in this room.

Step III. The teacher now points to his bag and to the flat

surface of the table on which the bag has been placed, and says: 'This is my bag. This is a table. *My bag is on this table.*' He then points to a glass and the seat of his chair on which the glass has been placed, and says: 'This is a glass. This is my chair. *This glass is on my chair.*' He points to a basket and to Dinu's desk on which the basket has been placed, and says: '*That basket is on his desk.*' Then, the pupils point to the things and say the three sentences containing *on*—*Your bag is on that table. That glass is on your chair. That basket is on his desk.* The teacher then refers to different things indicated in brackets below to drill the use of *on*.

Examples

Pupil A to B: (*cap, head*) His cap is on his head.

Pupil B to C: (*pencil, book*) Her pencil is on this book.

Pupil C to D: (*cup, box*) That cup is on that box.

Pupil D to E: (*stick, desk*) My stick is on your desk.

Step IV. The teacher now helps the pupils to say two or three connected sentences. He points to the appropriate persons or things and supplies the key-words.

Teacher: That is Dinu. He is my pupil. He is in this room.

Pupil A: (*Sita*) That is Sita. (*my friend*) She is my friend. (*room*) She is in this room.

Pupil B to C: (*bag*) That is your bag. (*book, bag*) Your book is in your bag.

Pupil C to D: (*desk*) This is a desk. (*book, desk*) His book is on this desk.

Pupil D to E: (*Dinu*) That is Dinu. (*box, chair*) His box is on my chair.

The teacher writes TABLE 2 given on page 2 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book One* on the board and asks the pupils to read different sentences from it.

In subsequent lessons wall pictures may be used to take the children outside the classroom situation and to teach phrases like *on that farm, on this wall, in this post-office, etc.*

In this handbook it is not possible to deal in detail with every single point in the syllabus. Here the intention is to give guidance to the teacher by illustrating a number of important and sometimes difficult points. The teacher should then gain a good idea of the general approach and so be able to apply the same principles to the rest of the syllabus. It will usually be desirable to drill a

teaching point in the positive, negative and interrogative forms and in all the tenses which have already been taught.

IT (Point 11)

The sequence signal *it* is used to refer to inanimate objects, birds and animals when they have already been mentioned. Pupils, therefore, should not in the early stages be allowed to begin a first sentence with *it*. *It* must refer back to something that has already been mentioned. *It* also helps in reinforcing the teaching of *in* and *on* and makes the spoken and written English of the pupils compact and concise.

Teaching IT

Step I. Teacher (pointing to his book): This is a book. It is my book.

Teacher (pointing to Dinu's cap): That is his cap. It is on his head.

Teacher (pointing to an apple): This is an apple. It is in my hand.

The teacher repeats the sentences. He then points to the things and the pupils say the sentences.

Step II. The teacher now points to some different objects and the pupils practise the structure. He supplies the key-words (given in brackets below), when necessary.

Pupil A to B: (*ball*) This is a ball. (*It, your*) It is your ball.

Pupil B to C: (*pen*) This is a pen. (*It, desk*) It is on his desk.

The teacher may, at this stage, make use of 'Exercises in Continuous Speech', III, on page 30 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book One*.

Step III. The teacher now draws some sketches on the board (a) to give pupils further practice in the use of *it*, (b) to teach new content vocabulary and (c) to help pupils to produce two or three well-knit sentences.

Example

The teacher draws a field on the board. He shows the farmer in his field and also his cow, his horse and his goat grazing in it. The field also has a mango tree and a cock is sitting on its topmost branch.

The teacher describes a part of the picture and then the pupils

describe it. Then the teacher points to the other parts of the picture and suggests the key-words and the pupils describe those parts.

Teacher: That is a farmer. That is his horse. It is in his field.

Pupil A: (*cow*) That is a cow. (*It, his*) It is his cow.

Pupil B: (*goat*) That is a goat. (*It, his*) It is his goat. (*It, field*) It is in his field.

Pupil C: (*tree*) That is a tree. (*It, mango tree*) It is a mango tree. (*It, field*) It is in his field.

Pupil D: That is a cock. (*It, his*) It is his cock. (*It, tree*) It is in that tree.

Similarly, the teacher could draw a girl on the board. The girl should be shown standing at a table with a banana in her hand. A guava and an apple should be shown on the table and an orange in a basket on the table. The teacher should describe a part of the picture and the pupils the rest of it.

Example

Teacher: That is a banana. It is her banana. It is in her hand.

Pupil A: (*apple*) That is an apple. (*It, her*) It is her apple. (*It, table*) It is on her table.

Step IV. The teacher writes on the board the set of substitution tables given on page 13 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book One*. Each pupil reads three connected sentences from the tables.

The teacher then writes a set of three sentences from the tables on the board and the pupils copy them in their note-books.

Example

This is a book. It is my book. It is on this table.

THE (Point 18)

The common practice in traditional grammar was to associate the definite article with certain common nouns and not with abstract nouns. This is misleading. The fact is that *the* has definite functions to perform irrespective of the noun it modifies. A most important function is that in which it takes a situation and draws a line round it defining a whole context. It then indicates that within the limits of that situation or context there is only one object of the kind referred to. Thus it delimits a given situation and denotes the uniqueness of the object within those limits. The difficulty is to determine the situation that is being limited.

In the situation of the universe there is only one sun and one moon. Hence we use *the* and say *the sun* and *the moon* indicating that in the context of our experience (in our solar system) there is only one sun and only one moon.

In the context of the classroom we have only one ceiling and one floor, so we can very well say *the ceiling* and *the floor*. Similarly, in the classroom there are many pupils but only one teacher. In this context we can therefore say *the teacher*. In the wider context of the whole school, there are many teachers but only one headmaster. So we can say *the headmaster*.

It is suggested that the definite article should be taught in one phonetic context at a time—first as ðə (before consonants) and later as ði (before vowels). The following steps can be followed:

Teaching THE

Step I. Revision of the material already taught—*a* and *an* will be recapitulated.

Step II. The teacher should say and demonstrate by gestures pointing clearly to the objects:

'That is a wall. That is a wall. That is a wall. That is a wall. (four walls). *That is the ceiling.* (one ceiling). *This is the floor.* (one floor).'

The teacher should point to these objects and ask some of the pupils, one by one, to repeat what was said before.

'That is a wall. That is a wall. That is a wall. That is a wall. That is the ceiling. This is the floor.'

The teacher will then point to the doors, windows, chairs, desks, fan, blackboard, map, etc, in the classroom and the pupils will produce sentences using *a* and *the*.

Step III. In order to give further practice in the use of the definite article, the teacher says pointing to different pupils: 'You are a pupil. You are a pupil....' and then pointing to himself: '*I am the teacher.*'

'Mr Sharma is a teacher. Mr Verma is a teacher. Miss Rastogi is a teacher. Miss Smith is a teacher. I am a teacher. *Mr Johri is the headmaster.*'

The pupils repeat these sentences with the necessary modifications—I am a pupil. You are a pupil. Hari is a pupil.... Mr Sharma is the teacher.

For additional practice the teacher should draw the picture of

a village containing a number of houses, a number of fields, a number of bullock-carts, a number of cows and buffaloes and *one well, one post-office, one panchayatghar and one school*. He should point to the objects and ask the pupils to say sentences using *a* and *the*:

That is a house. That is a house. That is a house. That is *the* temple.

That is a tree. That is a field. That is a cow. That is *the* village well.

After this, the pupils can practise *the* without contrasting it with *a* or *an*: That is *the* village road. That is *the* village school. That is *the* village post-office.

Step IV. Oral Composition

In oral composition the items taught earlier should also be used. The teacher should point to a wall picture or the pictures drawn by him on the board and ask the pupils to say a few connected sentences.

Key-words should be written on the board.

Example

the Sharma family, the village post-office, the village temple

Pupil A: That is the Sharma family. Those are Mr Ramesh Sharma and Mrs Gita Sharma. They are in the village post-office.

Pupil B: That boy is Dinu and that boy is Dipu. They are there. They are in the village temple.

COMING—GOING (Point 22)

Coming is normally used when the direction of movement is towards the speaker.

Going is normally used when the direction of movement is away from the speaker.

When a pupil moves to the teacher's table, other pupils should use *go* and not *come*, e.g. *Ram is going to the teacher's table*.

Going is also normally used when the direction of movement is from one point to another without reference to the speaker.

The teacher is going from the blackboard to Ram's seat.
Coming normally implies *here*, *Going* normally implies *there*.

This is our room. *Dinu is coming here.* That is the post-office. *Dipu is going there.*

Teaching COMING—GOING

Step I. The teacher asks one of the pupils to come to him. This can be done by signalling and saying, 'Come here.' As the pupil comes to the teacher, he says, 'You are coming to my table. You are coming here.'

A few more pupils are called by name and asked to come to the teacher's table, and as each of the pupils approaches, the teacher says to the class: 'Mohan is coming to my table. Sheela is coming to my table. Ram and Dinu are coming to my table.'

The teacher goes slowly towards the pupils, one by one, and as he goes, the pupil towards whom he is going says, 'You are coming to my desk.'

Step II. The teacher calls three pupils, Dinu, Dipu and Hari, to his table and as they come, he says, 'Dinu is coming to my table. He is coming here. Dipu is coming to my table. He is coming here. Hari is coming to my table. He is coming here.' Then, one by one, the pupils go to their seats, and as they go, the teacher says, 'Dinu is going to his desk. He is going there. Dipu is going to his desk. He is going there. Hari is going to his desk. He is going there.'

Step III. Now Dinu goes from his seat to the blackboard and the other pupils say, 'Dinu is going to the blackboard.' Dinu says, 'I am going to the blackboard.' Next, addressing Dinu, the other pupils say, 'You are going to the blackboard.' Then Dipu goes to the door and, as he goes, the other pupils say, 'Dipu is going to the door. He is going there.' Dipu says as he goes, 'I am going to the door. I am going there.' Then, Hari goes to the window and, as he goes, the other pupils, addressing him, say, 'You are going to the window. You are going there.'

Step IV. *Going and coming* should now be practised with *from* and *to*.

Examples

Dinu is coming from his desk to my table.

Dipu is going from the door to the window.

Sita and Gita are going from their desks to the blackboard.

The procedure to be followed is the same as in Step III above. The pupils should practise the new item both with singular and plural subjects.

Step V. A language game can be played to drill these structures. Divide the class into two teams, X and Y. These teams should face each other. When two members of team X go to Y, the statements made by members of team Y will be:

A is coming here. B is coming here. A and B are coming here. They are coming here.

Members of team X will make the following statements:

A is going there. B is going there. A and B are going there. They are going there.

THE SIMPLE PAST (Point 38)

The teaching of English starts in our schools with the present forms of the neutral verb 'to be'—i.e. *am/is/are* (I am your friend. My book is on my table. Those boys are my brothers.) This is followed by the Present Continuous forms of the verb. The Present Continuous is introduced first as it is easily demonstrable and is therefore easily taught and practised. When the pupils get the idea of NOW and when they can handle action and motion verbs in the present, they are taught the Simple Future and the Simple Past.

While teaching the Simple Future and the Simple Past, the teacher should run through all the verbs taught in the Present Continuous and teach their future and past forms. Difficult past forms like *brought, taught, caught* (which introduce vowel and consonant changes) may be introduced later.

Teaching the SIMPLE PAST (SVO; SVOE)

Step I. The teacher performs a series of actions and the pupils say what he is doing. (a) He slowly opens his umbrella and Dinu says, 'You are opening your umbrella.' He then closes his umbrella. (b) He draws a picture on the board. As he is drawing it, Dipu says, 'You are drawing a picture on the board.' He then rubs off the picture. (c) He gives some flowers to Sita. As he does so, she says, 'You are giving flowers to me.' He then takes them from her and puts them on his table.

(a) to make statements (b) to ask questions and (c) to give commands. The language material selected for the Junior High School is confined to these three main functions. In the grading of the material in the syllabus questions have been separated from statements. The following are some of the reasons for doing so:

One of the main principles of successful teaching is *to teach one thing at a time*. The statement pattern and most question patterns are structurally different from one another. The statement pattern is SvO (This is a book) or SvVO (He is reading a book) and the question pattern is usually vSO (Is this a book?) or vSVO (Is he reading a book?). If we teach both these conflicting structures at the same time, there will be confusion in the minds of the pupils and it will be difficult to establish either of them firmly.

Another important principle is to minimise the learning load. If we teach both these structures together, the learning load will be heavy and the pupils will not be able to assimilate the material. It is therefore desirable that question patterns should be taught separately.

Basically, the question-answer technique which teachers tend to follow is psychologically unsound because this technique helps to build up an attitude of mind which imagines that every statement must have a question. The aim of teaching the question pattern is to enable the pupils to ask questions, but when the question-answer technique is followed the teacher does all the questioning and the pupils do not get any opportunity to practise questions. They remain passive listeners as far as questions are concerned.

It must be realised that most of the students in schools and colleges cannot ask questions in English correctly because they have not had adequate practice in these patterns. If the questions are separated from the statements, the pupils will get a chance to practise these patterns thoroughly. The learning load will be small and the teaching of statements will be reinforced.

Yes—No questions require answers with *Yes* or *No*.

Examples

Q. Have you seen the Red Fort?

Ans. Yes, I have. (No, I haven't.)

Q. Will you see me this evening?

Ans. Yes, I will. (No, I won't.)

The following suggestions should be borne in mind when teaching this pattern:

This item should first be taught only with *Am/Is/Are/Was/Were*.

The sequence signals *it* and *they* should be used in the answers.

Examples

Q. Is this a coat?

Ans. Yes, it's a coat.

Q. Are those pencils?

Ans. Yes, they're pencils.

The intonation pattern of this type of question differs from the intonation pattern of statements. It has a rise in tone on the last stressed syllable. (See Chapter V, page 24).

When demonstrating this structure, the teacher should pause for an answer looking expectantly at the pupils to make them understand that a question has been asked.

Teaching *IS/AM/ARE/WAS/WERE*.....? (Point 41)

Step I. The teacher points to a pencil, a book and a pen, one by one, and as he points to them, he says, 'This is a pencil. This is a book. This is a pen.' (Tune I) Then he points to his coat and says, 'Is this a coat?' (Tune II) He pauses for an answer looking expectantly at the pupils. They will probably say, 'That is a coat.' The teacher should accept the answer and modify it adding *Yes* at the beginning and using the sequence signal *it*—'Yes, it's a coat.' He should then ask the pupils to repeat this answer.

Next he should point to a bag, a knife and a cap and say, 'This (That) is a bag. This (That) is a knife. This (That) is a cap.' (Tune I). And then, pointing to a ball, he should ask, 'Is this (that) a ball?' (Tune II) The pupils' answers should be corrected and supplemented as before, if necessary. He should insist on *it* being used instead of *this* or *that* in the answers.

Step II. Now, the teacher points to some objects, pictures and persons and asks questions. The pupils answer them as before.

Teacher: Is this a chair?

Pupil A: Yes, it's a chair.

The teacher now addresses the class and says:

'I opened my umbrella. I drew a picture on the board. I gave flowers to Sita.'

The pupils repeat the sentences with the necessary changes getting the cue from the teacher who points to the objects and suggests the key-words, i.e. *opened*, *drew* and *gave*. He then writes these sentences on the board—*You opened your umbrella. You drew a picture on the board. You gave flowers to Sita.*

Step II. The teacher gives some commands. As a few pupils carry them out, the others say what they are doing.

Teacher to Dinu and Dipu: Count your books, please.

He points to Hari who says, 'They are counting their books.'

Dinu and Dipu then put their books away.

Teacher: Sita, throw the ball to Rahim.

The teacher points to Rahim who says, 'Sita is throwing the ball to me.'

The teacher then takes the ball from Rahim.

Teacher to Karim: Close the door, please.

The teacher points to Suresh who says, 'Karim is closing the door.'

He then opens the door.

The teacher then addresses the class and says:

'Dinu and Dipu counted their books. Sita threw the ball to Rahim. Karim closed the door.'

He says the sentences again and the pupils repeat them. He then writes the sentences on the board.

Step III. The teacher now creates different situations to drill the past forms of these six verbs.

Examples

1. Dinu opened his desk.
2. Those girls opened their fans.
3. My friend drew a horse on the board.
4. The teacher drew a bird on the board.
5. You gave a rupee to me.
6. I gave a book to you.
7. He counted Sita's pencils.
8. She counted her books in the classroom.
9. The boys threw their bags into the corner.
10. The girls threw their pens on the floor.

11. Dipu closed his book.
12. The girl closed her box.

The teacher now (a) describes a situation in three or four sentences, and after he has done it the pupils describe it. He then (b) creates a number of different situations and the pupils describe them.

Examples

(a) Teacher: My friend opened his umbrella. He closed it. He put it on that table. It is there now.

(b) Pupil A: (Teacher points to a picture.) That is a picture. (drew) Kamu drew it. (gave) She gave it to Dipu. (desk, now) It is on his desk now.

Pupil B: (bags) Those are their bags. (counted) The boys counted them. (threw, floor) They threw them on the floor. (there, now) They are there now.

He then writes the key-words (of a situation already described) on the board and the pupils write the sentences in their notebooks.

Example

friend opened . closed then. put table.
is now.

My friend opened his umbrella. He closed it then. He put it on the table. It is there now.

Similar exercises in continuous speech are given on pages 34-36 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book One*.

Wall pictures may also be used to drill the use of the past forms of the verbs. For example, the teacher uses Wall Picture No. 4—IN THE BAZAAR. He tells his pupils that Dinu, Sita, Dipu and Kamu went to the bazaar yesterday and that the picture shows what they did there. The pupils then describe the situation with the teacher's help.

Example

Dinu and Sita went to the sweet-shop yesterday. They bought sweets from the sweet-seller. The sweet-seller sold sweets to them. Dinu gave a rupee to him. He put the sweets into his bag then.

QUESTION PATTERNS

A language has many important functions among which are

Teacher (pointing to the picture of a tree on the board): Is that a tree?

Pupil B: Yes, it's a tree.

Teacher (pointing to Dinu): Is that Dinu?

Pupil C: Yes, it's Dinu.

Step III. At this stage the teacher points to these and other objects, pictures and persons and says to the pupils, 'Ask a question' (explaining that he means that they should ask a question).

The answers should be given by other pupils.

Teacher (pointing to a table): Ask a question.

Pupil A: Is that a table?

Pupil B: Yes, it's a table.

Teacher (pointing to the picture of a house drawn on the board): Ask a question.

Pupil C: Is that a house?

Pupil D: Yes, it's a house.

Teacher (pointing to Sita): Ask a question.

Pupil E: Is that Sita?

Pupil F: Yes, it's Sita.

The same procedure may be followed for teaching and drilling the following questions. (The appropriate answers should also be practised):

1. Is he a pupil? (Yes, he's a pupil.)
2. Is she a pupil? (Yes, she's a pupil.)
3. Is that woman a teacher? (Yes, she's a teacher.)
4. Is that man a farmer? (Yes, he's a farmer.)
5. Is that pen on the table? (Yes, it's on the table.)
6. Am I a teacher? (Yes, you're a teacher.)
7. Are you a pupil? (Yes, I'm a pupil.)

Step IV. The teacher writes Substitution Table 12 given on page 6 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book One*. Each pupil reads three questions and their answers from the table and then writes them in his note-book.

For teaching questions beginning with *Was* and *Were* the teacher should proceed in the following way:

He should say, 'Ram was here yesterday. I was here yesterday. Dinu was here yesterday. (Tune I) *Was Mohan here yesterday?*' (Tune II).

The rest of the procedure will be the same as in the preceding questions. The pupils should practise as many different questions as possible. Here are a few examples:

Was yesterday Monday?

Was yesterday a holiday?

Was the headmaster in his office yesterday afternoon?

Were you here yesterday morning?

Were your friends in the playground this morning?

Were Dinu and Dipu in the garden the day before yesterday?

The next step in teaching the *Yes—No* questions will be to introduce the *vSV(OE)* pattern. Are they running? Is he reading a book? Are you putting a book on the table? (Points 42 and 43) This is followed by the introduction of *Will* and *Did* in question patterns (Points 44 and 45).

Negative answers may next be introduced, followed by short answers, both positive and negative.

In teaching questions beginning with an asking word (Points 50-60), it should be remembered that the intonation pattern is the same as that for a statement (Tune I).

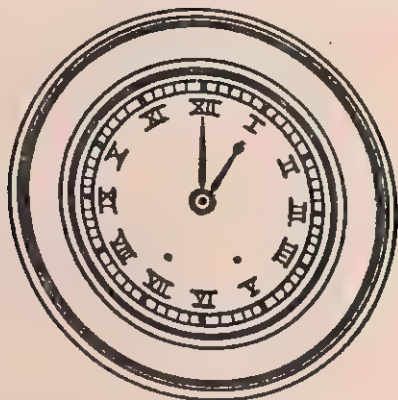
TELLING THE TIME (Point 66)

Children should be taught to tell the time in English directly from a clock without any reference to the corresponding time expressions in the mother tongue. The time expressions to teach from a clock are: (two) *o'clock*; *half past* (three); *a quarter past* (four); *a quarter to* (five); (ten) *minutes past* (three) or *ten past* (three) and (ten) *minutes to* (two) or (ten) *to* (two). The teacher should bear in mind that the word *minutes* should be used with all numbers which are not multiples of 5. For example, we cannot say 'four to two' or 'three past five'. We must say *four minutes to two* or *three minutes past five*. But we can say *five to six* or *five minutes to six*, *twenty past eight* or *twenty minutes past eight*.

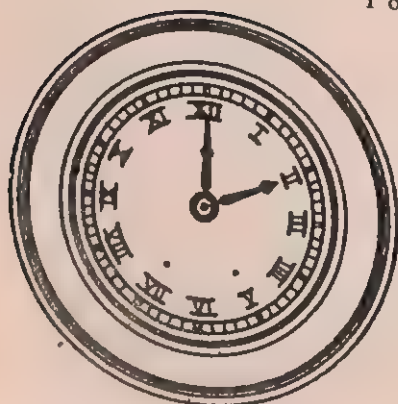
Teaching HOW TO TELL THE TIME

Step I. The teacher should either bring a clock into the class or draw several clocks on the board, each showing a different time. The use of a large model clock would be very helpful.

The clock is set appropriately or the following sketches are drawn on the board and the time written under each:



1 o'clock



2 o'clock



3 o'clock

The teacher should point to the first clock and say: 'This is a clock. This is its big hand and this is its small hand. The small hand is the hour hand and the big hand is the minute hand. The hour hand is at 1 and the minute hand is at 12. *The time is 1 o'clock.*'

Step II. The pupils should point to the clock and repeat the sentences from their seats substituting *That* for *This*.

Now the teacher should point to the second clock and proceed as follows:

Teacher (pointing to the minute hand and prompting the pupils):
The minute hand.....

Pupil A: The minute hand is at 12.

Teacher (pointing to the hour hand and prompting):

The hour hand.....

Pupil B: The hour hand is at 2.

Teacher: *The time.....*

Pupil C: The time is 2 o'clock.

In this way, he should teach 3 o'clock, 4 o'clock, etc.

Step III. Pointing to the hands of the clock, a pupil says: 'The hour hand is at 12 and the minute hand is at 5. It is 5 o'clock.'

The teacher now moves the hands of the clock and the pupils tell the time stating clearly where the hour and the minute hands are.

After adequate drill in the above sentences, the teacher points to the clock and asks, 'What's the time?' The pupils answer, 'It's —o'clock.'

Now the teacher moves the hands of the clock and the pupils ask the question 'What's the time?' and answer, 'It's—o'clock.'

Step IV. Following the same procedure, the teacher should now teach *half past*, *a quarter past* and *a quarter to*.

To teach *half past*, for example, he should point to the hands of the clock and say, 'The minute hand is at 6 and the hour hand is between one and two. *The time is half past 1.*'

Step V. Composition—Oral and Written

The teacher draws a big clock on the board and writes *Dinu's clock* under it. The time shown on the clock is 6 o'clock. He writes the following key-words on the board:

That

Whose

Dinu's

Is

big

Yes,

Where

hour

What's

It's

?

?

hands?

6, minute hand

12.

?

With the help of the key-words the following conversation is produced orally and then it is written out by the pupils in their note-books.

Hari: That is a clock. Whose clock is it?

Mohan: It's Dinu's clock. Is it a big clock?

Shyam: Yes, it is. Where are its hands?

Dipu: The hour hand is at 6 and the minute hand is at 12.
What's the time?

Govind: It's 6 o'clock.

A few other clocks may be drawn on the board showing *half past—, a quarter past—, a quarter to—, —minutes past—, —minutes to—*, etc., and oral and written composition may be based on them as above.

After teaching these time expressions the teacher should try to use them whenever there is an opportunity to do so.

DETERMINATIVE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES (Point 75)

These prepositional phrases identify or determine the things or persons immediately preceding them. Their function is the same as that of determinative relative clauses, and they are used very frequently in English. Where a thing or person can be identified by either a relative clause or a prepositional phrase, the latter is usually preferred. For example, the sentence *The man in the corner was wounded in the last war* will usually be preferred to *The man who is in the corner was wounded in the last war*.

Teaching DETERMINATIVE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Step I. The teacher points to the objects in the following sentences and says:

'This is a rose. It is on my bag. It is red.'

'That is a rose. It is on Dinu's desk. It is yellow.'

'The rose on my bag is red. The rose on Dinu's desk is yellow.'

The teacher repeats the last two sentences clearly and then writes them on the board.

Again, making appropriate gestures, the teacher says:

'This is a pen. It is in my hand. It is blue.'

'That is a pen. It is in Karim's hand. It is green.'

'The pen in my hand is blue.'

'The pen in Karim's hand is green.'

Step II. Teacher: Now I will point to different things and you describe them in single sentences using the words I give.

Teacher (pointing to Dinu's cap): *head, clean*

Pupil A: The cap on Dinu's head is clean.

Teacher (pointing to the stick in his hand): *hand, long*

Pupil B: The stick in your hand is long.

Teacher (pointing to a boy behind the board): *board, tall*

Pupil C: The boy behind the board is tall.

Teacher (pointing to the bag under pupil D's chair): *chair, old*

Pupil D: The bag under my chair is old.

Teacher (pointing to a boy at the door): *door, short*

Pupil E: The boy at the door is short.

Teacher (pointing to a boy in front of Gopi): *Gopi, Hari*

Pupil F: The boy in front of Gopi is Hari.

Step III. The teacher uses the picture on page 5 in *Read and Learn, Book Two—WHAT COLOUR IS IT?* to reinforce the new point and to practise the prepositions and prepositional phrases already taught in the first year. The teacher describes one section of the picture.

Teacher: The old man at the door is the gardener. The flower in his hand is a rose. He is putting it into a bowl.

The teacher now points to the picture of the gardener's son and suggests the key-words given in brackets below. The pupils describe the situation.

Pupil A: (*door, gardener's son*) The boy at the door is the gardener's son.

Pupil B: (*sitting*) He is sitting on the floor.

Pupil C: (*sitting, with*) He is sitting on the floor with his father.

Pupil D: (*hand, rose*) The flower in his hand is a rose.

Pupil E: (*putting, bowl*) He is putting it into a bowl.

Pupil F: The boy at the door is the gardener's son. He is sitting on the floor. He is sitting on the floor with his father. The flower in his hand is a rose. He is putting it into a bowl.

Other situations in the picture may be described in the same way:

Pupil G: (*girl, white frock, Kamu*) The girl in the white frock is Kamu. (*learning English, John*) She is learning English from John. (*pencil, hand*) Her pencil is in her hand. (*short*) It is short.

Pupil H: (*boy, blue shirt, Dinu*) The boy in the blue shirt is Dinu. (*sitting, chair*) He is sitting on his chair. (*pencil, hand, yellow*) The pencil in his hand is yellow.

Pupil I: (*girl, yellow frock, Sita*) The girl in the yellow frock is Sita. (*pencil, hand, red*) The pencil in her hand is red. (*short*) It is short.

Pupil J: (*boy, green shirt, Dipu*) The boy in the green shirt is Dipu. (*pencil, hand, blue*) The pencil in his hand is blue. (*long*) It is long.

Step IV. The teacher draws a set of four substitution tables on the board. The pupils read four connected sentences from the tables and then write them in their note-books.

A	The	men	at	the	gate	are	farmers
					well		
		boys	in		garden		
					bazaar		
							peons
							Indians

B	The	bundles	under the tree	are theirs
		bags		
		baskets		
		boxes		
			on the verandah	
			in the room	

C	They will go	home	in	an hour
		to their village		half an hour
		to town	at	4 o'clock
				half past three

D	They will carry their	bundles	with them
		bags	
		baskets	
		boxes	

Example

The men at the well are farmers. The bundles under the tree are theirs. They will go home in half an hour. They will carry their bundles with them.

A (AN), ONE—ANOTHER (Point 79)

This item is used to identify members of a series of more than two. The first member referred to will be identified by *a*, *an* or *one* and each of the rest of the members by *another*. These need not, however, be in a fixed order.

Generally speaking, *one* is used instead of *a (an)* when the members of a series are in different positions or possess different attributes or belong to different persons or are enumerated or identified or are performing different actions.

Examples

- (a) These are my books. One book is on the table. Another book is on the stool. Another book is on the floor.
- (b) Those are my pupils. One pupil is tall. Another pupil is short. Another pupil is fat. Another pupil is thin.
- (c) These are pencils. One pencil is mine. Another pencil is yours. Another pencil is his. Another pencil is hers.
- (d) Those are five girls. That is one girl. That is another girl. That is another girl. That is another girl. That is another girl.
- (e) Those are three girls. One girl is Sita. Another girl is Gita. Another girl is Sheela.
- (f) Those are three farmers. One farmer is ploughing the field. Another farmer is sowing the seed. Another farmer is sitting in the field. But:
- (g) That is a book. That is another book. That is another book.

Teaching A (AN), ONE—ANOTHER

Step I. The teacher points to some of the pupils, one by one, and says, 'That's a boy. That's another boy. That's another boy. That's another boy.'

He now points to a few chairs, one by one, and says, 'That's a chair. That's another chair. That's another chair. That's another chair. That's another chair.'

The teacher points to different series of things or groups of children in the classroom and the pupils say sentences using *a* and *another*.

Pupil A: That's a desk. That's another desk. That's another desk. That's another desk.

Pupil B: Ramesh is a boy. Mohan is another boy. Suresh is another boy. Hari is another boy. Gopi is another boy.

Step II. The teacher now uses *one* instead of *a*. He points to four pencils of different colours—blue, red, yellow and green—and says, 'These are four pencils. *One pencil is blue, another pencil is red, another pencil is yellow and another pencil is green.*'

One and *another* may now be drilled with *mine, yours, his* and *hers*. The teacher should get three pencils from three pupils and put them with his pencil on the table and then say to one of those pupils:

'These are pencils. *One pencil is mine. Another pencil is yours. Another pencil is his (hers). Another pencil is his (hers).*'

The pupils should point to the pencils and repeat the statements with the necessary modifications.

Then the teacher may get their books from a few pupils, hold them up in his hand and say, 'These are books.' The pupils will then say, 'One book is Hari's. Another book is Moti's. Another book is mine (yours).' Chairs, desks, bags, etc., may be used to practise *one* and *another* with *mine, yours, his* and *hers*.

Step III. The teacher now puts four books in different places—one on the table, another on the floor, another on the desk and another on the chair. He points to all the books and says, 'Those are books.' Then, he points to the book on the table and supplies the key-word *one book*.

Pupil A: One book is on the table.

Teacher (pointing to the book on the floor): *Another....*

Pupil B: Another book is on the floor.

Teacher (pointing to the book on the desk): *Another....*

Pupil C: Another book is on the desk.

Teacher (pointing to the book on the chair): *Another....*

Pupil D: Another book is on the chair.

Other similar situations may be built and described by the pupils using *one* and *another*.

Step IV. The teacher asks four of the pupils to do four different things—to draw a picture, to read a book, to write a letter and to eat fruit. Other pupils are asked to describe what those four are doing, using *one* and *another*. They will say: 'Those boys are in the corner. One boy is drawing a picture, another boy is reading a book, another boy is writing a letter and another boy is eating fruit.'

Further situations may be built by asking a few pupils to come to the front of the class and perform different actions.

Step V. Composition—Oral and Written

The teacher refers to the above situation and helps the pupils to say the following connected sentences:

Those are boys. They are in the corner. One boy is Dinu. Another boy is Dipu. Another boy is Hari. Another boy is Moti. One boy is drawing a picture. Another boy is writing a letter. Another boy is reading a book. Another boy is eating fruit.

The pupils should write in their note-books what they produced orally.

ONE—THE OTHER (Point 80)

This item is used to identify members of a series of two. It will never operate in a series of more than two. The first member referred to will be identified by *one* and the second by *the other*. It should be noted that both *one* and *the other* are being taught here as adjectives.

Teaching ONE—THE OTHER

Step I. It is advisable to begin with natural series of two—*hands, eyes, ears*, etc.

The teacher shows his hands to the pupils and says, 'These are my hands. *This is one hand and this is the other hand.*'

Similarly, pointing to his eyes and ears, he says:

'These are my eyes. *This is one eye and this is the other eye.*'

'These are my ears. *This is one ear and this is the other ear.*'

Step II. The teacher points to the eyes, ears, hands and legs of some of the pupils, one by one, and as he points to them the pupils say the following sentences:

Pupil A: These are my ears. This is one ear and this is the other ear.

Pupil B: These are my legs. This is one leg and this is the other leg.

Pupil C to D: Those are your eyes. That's one eye and that's the other eye.

Pupil D to E: Those are your hands. That's one hand and that's the other hand.

Step III. The teacher now draws a few pictures on the board and supplies the key-words. The pupils describe the pictures using the key-words.

Examples

A picture of two boats, one going up the river and the other going down the river, is drawn.

Teacher (pointing to the boat going up the river): *One boat.....*

Pupil A: One boat is going up the river.

Teacher (pointing to the boat going down the river): *The other.....*

Pupil B: The other boat is going down the river.

A picture of two parrots, one green and the other red, is drawn.

Teacher (pointing to the green parrot): *One parrot....*

Pupil C: One parrot is green.

Teacher (pointing to the red parrot): *The other.....*

Pupil D: The other parrot is red.

The teacher may also build a few physical situations to practise *one* and *the other*.

Examples

1. Two boys in front of the class—one reading a book and the other writing on the board.

2. Two pupils in the corner—one jumping and the other clapping.

Where Wall Picture 2—COLOURS—for Class VII is available, the teacher should make use of it to drill *one* and *the other* further.

Examples

1. One boat is small and the other boat is big.

2. One boat is going up the river and the other boat is going down the river.

3. One boat is carrying men and the other boat is carrying women.
4. Two women are coming down the mountain. One woman is fat and the other woman is thin.
5. One woman is wearing a blue sari and the other woman is wearing a green sari.
6. One woman is carrying a bundle on her head and the other woman is carrying her brother on her back.

Step IV. The teacher now takes two pencils (one long and red and the other short and blue) and puts one on the table and the other on the floor. The pupils describe the situation with the help of the key-words supplied by the teacher using *one* and *the other*. Each pupil repeats what has been said earlier and adds another sentence to it.

Teacher (pointing to the pencils): *Those....*

Pupil A: Those are two pencils.

Teacher (pointing to the pencils on the table and the floor):
table, floor....

Pupil B: Those are two pencils. One pencil is on the table and the other pencil is on the floor.

Teacher (pointing to the pencils): *long, short....*

Pupil C: Those are two pencils. One pencil is on the table and the other pencil is on the floor. One pencil is long and the other pencil is short.

In the same way, red and blue should also be used with *one* and *the other*.

Step V. The pupils make three sets of sentences from the following tables and write them in their note-books.

Two men are	standing sitting	under a tree at the gate on the platform
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One man is	tall fat old	and the other man is	short thin young
------------	--------------------	----------------------	------------------------

The	tall fat old	man is a	barber carpenter shopkeeper	and the	short thin young	man is a	taylor gardener mason
-----	--------------------	-------------	-----------------------------------	------------	------------------------	-------------	-----------------------------

Example

Two men are standing at the gate. One man is tall and the other man is short. The tall man is a barber and the short man is a tailor.

HAVE—HAS

Have is not introduced until the second year of English as it is a complex form, difficult to teach and use with confidence. The difficulty arises largely because of its very wide area of meaning. In the Junior High School, however, we teach only four different meanings of *have*:

- (i) to indicate permanent connections and possessions, e.g. *My friend has long legs. I have a car.*
- (ii) to indicate habitual actions, e.g. *I have a bath every morning.*
- (iii) to form the perfect tenses, e.g. *I have been living here since 1950. The farmer has sold all his wheat.*
- (iv) to indicate obligation, e.g. *He has to work hard for his living.*

The teaching of *have* is further complicated by the fact that it sometimes behaves as a regular verb (it forms its negative and interrogative forms with *do, does, did*) and sometimes as an anomalous finite (it forms the negative with *not* alone and the interrogative by inversion).

In the uses mentioned above, *have* in (i) and (iv) behaves in either way, in (ii) only as a regular verb and in (iii) as an anomalous finite (functioning as an auxiliary).

Examples

- (i) You have a large house.
You haven't a large house. You don't have a large house.
Have you a large house? Do you have a large house?
- (ii) I have breakfast at seven.
I don't have breakfast at seven.
Do I have breakfast at seven?

- You don't have to go.
Do you have to go?

We first introduce *have* in the meaning of permanent connections and possessions. The positive, negative and interrogative forms of *have* in this meaning are thoroughly practised and then the past form is introduced. Hindi and Urdu do not possess an equivalent of *have* in this meaning and therefore where these languages are the mother tongue of the pupils clear verbal contexts should be built up.

Teaching HAVE—HAS (Point 30)

Step I. The teacher points to his hands and says, ‘These are my hands. This is one hand and this is the other hand. *I have two hands.*’ He then addresses the class and says, ‘Children, show me your hands.’ The pupils put up their hands and the teacher points to the hands of each pupil and says to him, ‘*You have two hands.*’ Next, he shows his hands and says to the class, ‘*I have two hands.*’ He then makes a few pupils repeat the sentence substituting other words for hands (*ears, legs, feet, etc.*), suggesting the key-words.

Dinu has two eyes. Hari
In all probability,

The teacher says, 'I have two eyes. Dinu has two eyes. Hari has two eyes. *Have you two eyes, Sita?* (Tune II). In all probability, Sita will give the correct answer—*Yes, I have.* (The rising tone on the last stressed syllable—*eyes*—indicates that a question is being asked.) If however, Sita fumbles, the teacher should suggest the answer—*Yes,* The teacher then says, 'I have two eyes. *I haven't three eyes.* Have you three eyes, Dipu?' If Dipu doesn't answer promptly, the teacher suggests the beginning—*No,* Dipu says, '*No, I haven't.* I have two eyes.' Similarly, the teacher introduces *has* in negative and interrogative sentences.

Example
The teacher says, 'Dinu hasn't a beard. Gopi hasn't a beard.
Has Dipu a beard, Kamu?' Kamu says, 'No, he hasn't.'

The teacher then writes the following sentences on the board and the pupils read them:

I have two eyes. I haven't three eyes. Have you three eyes? Dinu hasn't a beard. Has Hari a beard?

Step II. The teacher drills the positive, negative and interrogative forms of *have* and *has* (in the meaning of permanent connections) using the Question-Answer device. The teacher suggests the key-words given in brackets below and the pupils frame suitable questions and answers:

Pupil A to B: (*three heads*) Have you three heads?

Pupil B: No, I haven't. I have one head.

Pupil B to C: (*Gita; ten fingers*) Has Gita ten fingers?

Pupil C: Yes, she has.

Pupil C to D: (*two noses*) Have you two noses?

Pupil D: No, I haven't. I have one nose.

Pupil D to E: (*table; three legs*) Has this table three legs?

Pupil E: No, it hasn't. It has four legs.

Adjectives may also be used:

Pupil E to F: (*grey hair*) Have you grey hair?

Pupil F: No, I haven't. I have black hair.

Pupil F to G: (*Sita; long hair*) Has Sita long hair?

Pupil G: Yes, she has.

Step III. The teacher points to his things on the table and says, 'This is my bag. This is my book. These are my pens.' He then pauses and says clearly, '*I have a bag. I have a book. I have two pens. I haven't a pencil. Have you a pencil, Karim?*'

Karim: Yes, I have a pencil.

Teacher (pointing to his handkerchief): I have a handkerchief.

Sita has a handkerchief. Kamu hasn't a handkerchief.

Has Gopi a handkerchief, Hari?

Hari: No, he hasn't.

The teacher asks the children to put some of their possessions on their desks and drills the use of *have* and *has* (in the meaning of possession) using the Question-Answer chain.

Example

Pupil F to G: (*bag*) Have you a bag?

Pupil G: Yes, I have.

Pupil G to H: (*Sita; red pencil*) Has Sita a red pencil?
Pupil H: No, she hasn't. She has a blue pencil.

Step IV. The teacher writes on the blackboard Set III of Substitution Tables on page 16 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book Two*. He, however, leaves a few columns of the first two tables blank and asks the pupils to fill in a certain number of appropriate words. In the first table, for example, he does not write *Have* in the first column and the adjectives in the fifth column. In the second table he only writes *No* and leaves the other columns blank. When the pupils complete the tables they should be asked to write one set of sentences from the tables.

Example

Have both the girls on the verandah green bags? No, they haven't green bags. One girl has a blue bag and the other girl has a yellow bag. Both the bags are new.

SOME—ANY (Point 99)

Some and *any* refer to an unspecified number or quantity. They are used when the exact number or quantity is not known. Generally, *some* is used in positive statements and *any* in negative statements and questions. This is particularly true when they are used with *There is....* or *There are....* and the full verb *have*.

Teaching SOME—ANY

Step I. The teacher puts four glasses on the table. Three of them contain some water and the fourth is empty. Pointing to the first three glasses, one by one, he says, '*There is some water in this glass. There is some water in this glass. There is some water in this glass.*' Then he points to the empty glass and says, '*There isn't any water in this glass.*'

Next, he takes some money in his right hand and says, '*There is some money in my right hand, but there isn't any money in my left hand.*'

Again, he puts two plates (one big and one small) on the table. There is some rice on the big plate but there is no rice on the small plate. He points to the plates and says, '*There is some rice on the big plate, but there isn't any rice on the small plate.*'

Step II. The teacher now points to the glasses, the money and the plates, supplies the key-words, and asks the pupils to repeat the above sentences. He also introduces *Is there any....?*

Examples

Teacher (pointing to the glass of water): *some*

Pupil A: There is some water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to another glass of water): *some*

Pupil B: There is some water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to another glass of water): *some*

Pupil C: There is some water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to the empty glass): *any*

Pupil D: There isn't any water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to the money in his right hand): *some*

Pupil E: There is some money in your right hand.

Teacher (pointing to his left hand): *any*

Pupil F: There isn't any money in your left hand.

Teacher (pointing to the rice on the big plate): *some*

Pupil G: There is some rice on that plate.

Teacher (pointing to the small plate): *any*

Pupil H: There isn't any rice on that plate.

Teacher (pointing to the glass of water): *Is there any water in this glass?*

Pupil I: Yes, there is some water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to another glass of water): *Is there any water in this glass?*

Pupil J: Yes, there is some water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to the empty glass): *Is there any water in this glass?*

Pupil K: No, there isn't any water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to the empty plate): *Is there any rice on this plate?*

Pupil L: No, there isn't any rice on that plate.

Teacher (pointing to the money in his right hand): *Is there any money in my right hand?*

Pupil M: Yes, there is some money in your right hand.

Teacher (pointing to his empty hand): *Is there any money in my left hand?*

Pupil N: No, there isn't any money in your left hand.

Step III. The teacher now puts the glasses, the money and the

plates on the table, points to them one by one, supplies the key-words, and asks the pupils to put questions and give answers.

Teacher (pointing to the glass of water): *water*

Pupil A: Is there any water in that glass?

Pupil B: Yes, there is some water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to the empty glass): *water*

Pupil C: Is there any water in that glass?

Pupil D: No, there isn't any water in that glass.

Teacher (pointing to the rice on the big plate): *rice*

Pupil E: Is there any rice on the big plate?

Pupil F: Yes, there is some rice on the big plate.

Teacher (pointing to the empty plate): *rice*

Pupil G: Is there any rice on the small plate?

Pupil H: No, there isn't any rice on the small plate.

The same procedure may be followed to drill *some* and *any* with *money*.

Step IV. The teacher now uses *some* and *any* with countable nouns. He holds the articles in his hand without giving the pupils any chance to count them.

Teacher (holding some pens in his right hand): I have some pens in my right hand. Have I any pens in my left hand?

Pupil A: No, you haven't any pens in your left hand.

Teacher (putting some books on his table): I haven't any books on my chair. Have I any books on my table?

Pupil B: Yes, you have some books on your table?

Teacher to C: Have you any books on my desk?

Pupil C: Yes, I have some books on my desk.

Teacher to C: Has A any pens in his right hand?

Pupil C: No, he hasn't any pens in his right hand?

Teacher to D: Has A any pens in his left hand?

Pupil D: Yes, he has some pens in his left hand.

Step V. The following additional situations may be used to drill the use of *some* and *any* in the positive, negative and interrogative forms, both with mass nouns and countable nouns. The pupils should also ask questions.

(i) The teacher puts some pencils on his table and some pens on his chair.

(ii) The teacher draws on the board two baskets, one big and

the other small, containing apples and mangoes respectively.

(iii) Three bags, one containing some sugar, another some rice and another some wheat, are drawn on the board. Under these bags the names of three pupils may be written.

(iv) The teacher puts some rubbers in his right pocket and some money in his left pocket.

Step VI. Composition—Oral and Written.

The teacher uses the first and third parts of Exercise VII on pages 33-35 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book Two*. The pupils compose sentences orally and then write them in their note-books.

AS MUCH...AS; AS MANY...AS (Point 148)

In the second year of English the pupils learn to describe persons and things using first adjectives of colour and size and then adjectives of quantity and number like *some, any, much, many, a little, a few*, etc. (The fat boy is eating sweets. I have a little money in my bag. There are a few girls in this class.) This prepares the ground for teaching (a) words of degree—*more than, less than, fewer than, most* and (b) comparisons. Comparisons of equality—*as much as, as many as, as big as*, etc.—are taught first; comparisons of inequality—*bigger, biggest, better, best*, etc.—are taught next. The teaching of comparisons of equality is simpler because there is no change in the physical shape of the words, whereas in teaching comparisons of inequality the form of the word changes—either the suffixes *-er* and *-est* are used (*longer, longest*) or new words are used (*worse, worst*).

The pupils already know that *much* is used with mass nouns like *tea, butter, food*, etc, and *many* with countable nouns like *books, boys, clocks*, etc.

Teaching AS MUCH...AS; AS MANY...AS

Step I. The teacher puts Dinu's and his own glass on the table. He points to them and says, 'This is Dinu's glass. This is my glass'. He then pours water into the glasses filling them to the brim and says, 'There is as much water in my glass as in Dinu's glass.' He repeats the sentence and writes it on the board. The pupils read the sentence silently.

The teacher takes the ink-bottles of two pupils. The bottles are of the same size and contain exactly the same quantity of ink. He points to the bottles and says, '*There is as much ink in Sita's bottle as in Karim's bottle.*'

The teacher now points to the rice which is in his bag and says, 'I have some rice in my bag.' He takes out a handful of rice and puts it on his table. He takes out another handful and puts it on his chair. As he performs these actions he says, 'I am taking some rice out of my bag. I am putting it on my table. I am putting some rice on my chair too. There is some rice on my table and there is some rice on my chair. *I have as much rice on my table as on my chair.*' He repeats the sentence and writes it on the board. The pupils read the sentence.

The teacher now refers to the three situations and repeats the three sentences—*There is as much water in my glass as in Dinu's glass. There is as much ink in Sita's bottle as in Karim's bottle. I have as much rice on my table as on my chair.* He then points to the three different things and the pupils say the sentences using *as much...as*.

Step II. The teacher creates different situations to drill this point. He puts three ten-naya paisa coins on his table and the same amount on Sita's desk. He points to the money and gives the key-words *money, as much as*, and the pupils say, 'There is as much money on your table as on Sita's desk.' Variety is introduced and interest is maintained by using other mass nouns known to the pupils, e.g. *sand, grass, wheat*, etc., and by putting them in different places.

Examples

Pupil A: (*sand, corner*) There is as much sand in this corner as in that corner.

Pupil B: (*chalk, table*) There is as much chalk under the table as on the table.

Pupil C: (*sand, hand*) I have as much sand in my left hand as in my right hand.

Pupil D: (*grass, bag, hand*) You have as much grass in your bag as in your hand.

Pupil E: (*wheat, basket, floor*) There is as much wheat in the basket as on the floor.

Pupil F: (*wheat, hand, bag*) There is as much wheat in Dinu's hand as in his bag.

The teacher can similarly drill the use of words like *tea*, *butter*, *food*, etc.

Step III. The teacher points first to the books on his table and then to the books on Hari's desk and says, 'There are two books on my table and there are two books on Hari's desk. *There are as many books on my table as on Hari's desk.*'

He then points to the stones in his hand and says, 'I have two stones in my left hand and I have two stones in my right hand. *I have as many stones in my right hand as in my left hand.*'

He now points to the flowers on his table and the flowers on his chair and says, 'I have two flowers on my table and two flowers on my chair. *I have as many flowers on my table as on my chair.*'

He points to these different things and says the three sentences again, and writes them on the board. The pupils repeat the sentences. Monotony is avoided by putting the books, stones and flowers in different places and by using other content words like *pictures*, *windows*, etc.

Example

Pupil A: (*stones, corner*) There are as many stones in this corner as in that corner.

Pupil B: (*books, bag, table*) There are as many books under my bag as under my table.

Pupil C: (*stones, box, basket*) Dipu has as many stones in his box as in his basket.

Pupil D: (*pictures, wall*) There are as many pictures on this wall as on that wall.

Pupil E: (*flowers, hand, glass*) Sita has as many flowers in her hand as in her glass.

Step IV. The teacher asks the pupils to construct (first orally and then in writing) a paragraph based on the first part of Exercise XVII on page 54 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book Two*. He may further build on it and ask the pupils to add another paragraph using the following key-words:

returned from	morning.	brought	mangoes
gave one	Hari	other	Hari's friend.
as many		in one basket as	

Hari's servant returned from his village this morning. He brought

two baskets of mangoes with him. He gave one basket to Hari and the other basket to Hari's friend. There were as many mangoes in Hari's basket as in his friend's basket.

Note: In teaching comparisons of equality the teacher should be careful not to stress *as*. The word to be stressed is *much* or *many* or the adjective between *as* and *as*—*as high as*, *as tall as*.

SINCE (Point 168)

Since means 'from some time in the past until now.' It fixes a point of time in the past. For example, Dinu has been reading a book since 10 o'clock. *Since* refers (a) to a specific point of time in the past (10 o'clock) and (b) to the period of time extending from a point in the past to the present. (Dinu has been reading a book from 10 o'clock till now.)

The teaching of *since* requires special attention, particularly in Hindi and Urdu speaking areas, as it is apt to be confused with *for*. In Hindi and Urdu the same structural word is used to signal the meaning of *since* and *for* in such sentences as *I have been living here since 1950* and *I have been living here for the last ten years*.

Teaching SINCE

Step I. The teacher shows his watch to Dinu and asks, 'What's the time?' Dinu says, 'It's half past 10.' The teacher then gives him a newspaper and asks him to read it to himself.

The teacher shows his watch to Gopi and asks, 'What's the time, Gopi?' Gopi says, 'It's 29 minutes to 11.' The teacher then asks him to draw a few pictures on the board.

The teacher shows his watch to Sita and asks, 'What's the time?' Sita says, 'It's 28 minutes to 11.' He gives her some pieces of paper and asks her to make paper-boats.

The teacher now asks questions and the pupils answer them.

Teacher : What's Dinu reading?

Pupil A: He's reading the newspaper.

Teacher : What's Gopi drawing on the board?

Pupil B: He's drawing pictures on the board.

Teacher : What's Sita making?

Pupil C: She's making paper-boats.

The teacher now points to Dinu, Gopi and Sita, one after another, and says, '*Dinu has been reading the newspaper since half past*

ten. Gopi has been drawing pictures since 29 minutes to 11. Sita has been making paper-boats since 28 minutes to 11.' He repeats the sentences and writes them on the board. The pupils read them silently. The teacher then turns to Karim and, pointing to Dinu, says *half past ten*. Karim says, 'Dinu has been reading the newspaper since half past ten.' Similarly, the teacher points to Gopi and says *29 minutes to 11*; points to Sita and says *28 minutes to 11*. The pupils describe what Gopi and Sita have been doing using *since*.

Step II. The teacher now contrasts *since* with *for*. He points to Dinu, Gopi and Sita, one by one, and says, 'Dinu has been reading the newspaper since half past 10. Gopi has been drawing pictures since 29 minutes to 11. Sita has been making paper-boats since 28 minutes to 11. It is a quarter to 11 now. Dinu has been reading the newspaper for 15 minutes now. Gopi has been drawing pictures for 14 minutes now. Sita has been making paper-boats for 13 minutes now.' He then points to Dinu, Gopi and Sita and gives the duration of action in each case and the pupils say the above sentences using *for*.

Step III.—Language Game

The teacher divides the class into two equal teams. He writes eight verbs (in the Present Perfect Continuous form) on the board. He also writes *since* and eight different time expressions. A member of one team makes a statement using one of the verbs and one of the time expressions with *since*. A member of the other team asks a question based on the previous statement. A member of the first team answers it and then asks another question using another verb and *since*.

Example

living		10 o'clock
working		half past one
teaching		yesterday morning
ploughing		last month
has/have been	since	
learning		Monday
selling		1959
playing football		December
making baskets		the first of this month

Team X, Pupil A: I have been living in Agra since 1959.

Team Y, Pupil B

to Team X, Pupil C: Have you been living in Agra since 1959?

Pupil C: Yes, I have.

Team Y, Pupil D: My friend has been teaching English since the first of this month.

Team X, Pupil E

to Team Y, Pupil F: Has your friend been teaching English since the first of this month?

Pupil F: No, he hasn't.

Team X, Pupil G: That man has been selling mangoes since last month.

Team Y, Pupil H

to Team X, Pupil I: Has that man been selling mangoes since last month?

Pupil I: Yes, he has.

Step IV. The teacher writes a few key-words on the board, and the pupils construct sentences orally and then write them in their note-books.

<i>Hari and Gopi</i>	<i>farmers.</i>	<i>live</i>	<i>my village.</i>
<i>work sometimes</i>	<i>their fields</i>	<i>sometimes</i>	<i>my farm.</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>fields today.</i>	<i>have been working</i>	
<i>10 o'clock..</i>	<i>12 o'clock now.</i>		
<i>have been working</i>	<i>hours now.</i>		

Hari and Gopi are farmers. They live in my village. They work sometimes in their fields and sometimes on my farm. They are working in their fields today. They have been working there since 10 o'clock. It is 12 o'clock now. They have been working for two hours now.

THE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

The important points about the Present Perfect are:

(i) The Present Perfect is used when the speaker is interested in the present result of what was done in the past. Consider the sentence *I have washed my hands*. The action was performed in the past but the present result—his hands being clean—is more important to the speaker.

The nearness or the remoteness of the event is of no significance. It might have taken place a week ago or many years ago. For example, the sentence *I have seen the play of 'Hamlet'* may refer to last week or to last year. The speaker is not interested in the time which has elapsed between now and when he saw the play but only in the memory of it.

(ii) The Present Perfect is used to express an action or state that extends between two points of time. The first point is in the past and is usually mentioned. The second point is NOW, the present.

Examples

I have lived in Allahabad since 1956 (=I have lived in Allahabad from 1956 to the present time). Miss Smith has been ill since I left (=Miss Smith has been ill from the time in the past when I left to the present time).

(iii) The Present Perfect is also used for a period of time extending to the present but with no reference to any specific point of time in the past.

Examples

Have you read many books this year? Sita has eaten a lot of mangoes this season.

In introducing the Present Perfect therefore, (a) the present result of a past action should be clearly visible to the pupils' eyes and (b) the teacher should contrast the Present Perfect with the Simple Past to emphasize the difference between an action that is finished and an action whose present results are more important to the speaker than its completion.

Examples

(a) I bought an umbrella last year. (The speaker bought the umbrella some time in the past. The umbrella may or may not still be in his possession: the past action of buying is the important consideration.) (b) I have bought an umbrella. (The result of the past action is of importance to the speaker. He is thinking of the umbrella being in his possession.)

A past time expression (*yesterday, last year, in 1950, etc.*) is never used with the Present Perfect.

*First lesson on the PRESENT PERFECT TENSE (Positive,
Negative and Interrogative forms—Point 170)*

Step I. The teacher performs different actions and says what he is doing and points out the result.

Teacher: I am putting a pencil into my pocket. It is in my pocket now. *I have put a pencil into my pocket.*

Teacher: I am giving a rupee to Dinu. Dinu has a rupee now. *I have given a rupee to Dinu.*

Teacher: I am drawing a tree on the board. The tree is on the board now. *I have drawn a tree on the board.*

Teacher: I am taking a letter out of my bag. It is in my hand now. *I have taken a letter out of my bag.*

The teacher then points to the pencil in his pocket and says, '*I have put a pencil into my pocket.*' He points to the rupee in Dinu's hand and says, '*I have given a rupee to Dinu.*' He points to the tree on the board and says, '*I have drawn a tree on the board.*' He points to his bag and the letter in his hand and says, '*I have taken a letter out of my bag.*' The teacher repeats the four sentences. He then asks a few questions and the pupils answer them using the Present Perfect Tense.

Teacher: What have I drawn on the board?

Pupil A: You have drawn a tree on the board.

Teacher: What have I given to Dinu?

Pupil B: You have given a rupee to Dinu.

Teacher: Where have I put my pencil?

Pupil C: You have put it into your pocket.

Teacher: What have I taken out of my bag?

Pupil D: You have taken a letter out of your bag.

The teacher should now contrast the Present Perfect with the Simple Past. He should rub the tree off the board, take the rupee from Dinu, take the pencil out of his pocket and put the letter into his bag. He should then say making appropriate gestures: '*I drew a tree on the board. I gave a rupee to Dinu. I put a pencil into my pocket. I took a letter out of my bag.*'

Step II. Teacher: Now all of us will put something into our pockets, but don't show it to anyone.
I have put a piece of chalk into my pocket. I haven't put a

pencil into my pocket. Have you put a pencil into your pocket, Dinu?

Dinu: No, I haven't. I have put a rubber into my pocket.

The teacher writes on the board: *Have you put . . . ? No, I haven't. Yes, I have.*

He then tells Dipu to ask his neighbour a question beginning with *Have you put . . .*. Dipu's neighbour answers the question and asks a similar question. Thus the positive, negative and interrogative forms are drilled.

Example

Dipu to Hari: Have you put a handkerchief into your pocket?
Hari: Yes, I have.

Hari to Gopi: Have you put a book into your pocket?
Gopi: No, I haven't. I have put a pen into my pocket.

Teacher: Now write the name of a bird or an animal in your note-book.

The teacher writes *parrot* on the board and says: 'I've written *parrot* on the board. Karim, have you written the name of a bird in your note-book?'

Karim: No, I haven't. I've written the name of an animal in my note-book.

Teacher: Karim, ask Dalip a question beginning with *Have you written . . .*. Dalip, you answer the question and then ask Rahim another question.

Question-Answer chain.

Step III. The teacher gives Dinu a bag containing some letters and parcels and instructs him in a whisper to go and stand at the door with two letters and a parcel in his hand and play the part of a postman.

The teacher points to Dinu and says, 'The postman has come. Dipu, what has he in his hand?'

Dipu: He has two letters and a parcel in his hand.

Dinu gives the parcel to Gopi and one letter to Rahim and the other to Karim.

Teacher: What has the postman given you, Karim?
Karim: He has given me a letter.

Teacher: Hari, put a question to Rahim beginning with *What has the postman . . .*

Hari: What has the postman given you, Rahim?

Rahim: He has given me a letter.

Teacher: Gopi, put a question to Dinu beginning with *What have you* . . .

Gopi to Dinu: What have you given me?

Dinu: I have given you a parcel.

Step IV. The teacher writes the key-words on the board. The pupils construct sentences orally and then write them in their note-books.

*It is evening. farmers to village. They from fields.
They have worked fields six hours. have ploughed
and have sown coming homes now. wives cooked
evening meal. children eaten their food women
eaten anything. They been waiting for . The farmers
bath and food.*

Teacher: It is evening.

Pupil A: The farmers are coming to the village.

Pupil B: They are coming from their fields.

Pupil C: They have worked in their fields for six hours.

Pupil D: They have ploughed their fields and have sown the seed.

Pupil E: They are coming to their homes now.

Pupil F: Their wives have cooked their evening meal.

Pupil G: The children have eaten their food but the women haven't eaten anything.

Pupil H: They have been waiting for their husbands.

Pupil I: The farmers will have a bath and then they will eat their food.

REPORTED SPEECH

Reported Speech is an important feature of the English language and therefore deserves special attention. It presents a great many difficulties to foreign learners of English whose mother tongue is Hindi or Urdu. In Hindi or Urdu there is, strictly speaking, no reporting in the sense that there is reporting in English. The reporter in Hindi or Urdu reproduces the exact words of the speaker, connecting them to his own introductory words by means of the linking word 'ki'. It would not be incorrect to say that he reports not only the facts contained in the words of the speaker but also his actual words. In English, on the other hand, it is not the actual

words of the speaker that are reported but the facts contained in those words. That is to say, the reporter conveys the message of the speaker to the listener in his own language using, for the sake of convenience, as many of the words of the speaker as possible.

Because the reporter in English reports not the speech but the facts in the speech of the speaker, he gives to the listener the impression that he is the speaker and, therefore, modifies the original speech. The modifications he makes, as the necessity may arise, are as follows:

1. Modifications of Person

Speaker: *I am* going home.

Reporter: *He* (speaker) says (that) *he* is going home.

2. Modifications of Verb Forms

Speaker: Ram *is* not well.

Reporter: He (speaker) said (that) Ram *was* not well.

3. Modifications of Place Expressions

Speaker (at Calcutta): It is very warm *here*.

Reporter (at Allahabad): Ram (speaker) says (from Calcutta that) it is very warm *there*.

4. Modifications of Time Expressions

Speaker (on Monday): I am going to work hard *today*.

Reporter (on following Thursday): Ram (speaker) said (on Monday last that) he was going to work hard *that day*.

5. Modifications of Structure in (a) Commands or Requests and (b) some Questions

(a)

Speaker: Hari, *go* away.

Reporter: Ram (speaker) ordered Hari *to go* away.

Speaker: Sita, please *sit* down.

Reporter: Ram (speaker) asked Sita *to sit* down.

(b)

Speaker: Is Mohan a good boy?

Reporter: Ram (speaker) is asking if *Mohan is a good boy*.

Speaker: Where do monkeys live?

Reporter: Ram (speaker) is asking where monkeys live.

Asking for permission is reported in the same way as a ques-

tion without an interrogative word, and giving of permission is reported as a statement:

Hari to the Teacher: *May I go home?*

Reporter: Hari is asking the teacher if *he may go home*.

Teacher to Hari: *You may go home*.

Reporter: The teacher says (is saying) to Hari that *he may go home*.

These modifications, however, are not always prescriptive. They depend largely on the situation. The following examples will illustrate the point:

A comes to me and asks me what my religion is. I reply to him, 'I *am* a Hindu'. After a few days, B comes to me and asks me what I told A about my religion, and I say to him, 'I told A (that) I *am* a Hindu.' In this case there is no modification of verb form since the reporter is still of the same religion.

A and his son B go to Rajapur. There A points to a place and says to B, 'Tulsidas was born *here*.' After a few days B goes to the same place with his friend C, and says, 'My father told me (that) Tulsidas was born *here*.' There is no change of place expression in this case because the *here* of A, the speaker, is the same as the *here* of B, the reporter.

So also there will be no modification of a time expression if it is the same for both the speaker and the reporter.

A to B (on Monday at 10 a.m.): I will go to the cinema tomorrow.

B to C (on Monday at 3 p.m.): A told me (that) he would go to the cinema *tomorrow*.

In this situation the time expression *tomorrow* is *tomorrow* for both the speaker and the reporter.

These few examples show the weakness of subjecting language to prescriptive rules and the strength of relating it to appropriate situations.

The reporting of some questions presents additional difficulties since, besides modifications of person, verb, etc., there may also be modifications of structure:

(a) In reporting all questions without an interrogative word *there is always modification of structure*, i.e. question pattern changes

into statement pattern—vSO into SvO, vSV(O) into SvV(O) or SV(O) and *if* or *whether* is used as the linking word.

1. A to B: Are you a clerk? (vSO?)
B to C: A is asking me *if I am a clerk.* (if+SvO)
2. A to B: Is Ram playing? (vSV?)
B to C: A is asking me *if Ram is playing.* (if+SvV)
3. A to B: Are you writing a letter? (vSVO?)
B to C: A is asking me *if I am writing a letter.* (if+SvVO)
4. A to B: Did you write a letter? (vSVO?)
B to C: A is asking me *if I wrote a letter.* (if+SVO)

(b) In reporting questions beginning with an interrogative word *there is modification of structure* (question pattern changing into statement pattern) if the interrogative word is in the position of the object, complement or extension and the interrogative word (*where, when, etc.*) becomes the linking word.

1. A to B: What did you do? (OvSV?)
B to C: A is asking me *what I did.* (what+SV)
2. A to B: What is your name? (CvS?)
B to C: A is asking me *what my name is.* (what+Sv)
3. A to B: When will you come? (EvSV?)
B to C: A is asking me *when I will come.* (when+SvV)

(c) In reporting questions with an interrogative word *there is no modification of structure* if the interrogative word is in the position of the subject.

1. A to B: Who has come to your house?
B to C: A is asking me *who has come to my house.*
2. A to B: Which book fell from the table?
B to C: A is asking me *which book fell from the table.*
3. A to B: What was written on the board?
B to C: A is asking me *what was written on the board.*
4. A to B: Whose pen was on the table?
B to C: A is asking me *whose pen was on the table.*

The linking word 'that' is never used in the reporting of questions.

Another very important point to bear in mind in connection with Reported Speech is that the tense of the reporting verb does not necessarily condition the tense of the verb in the reported

speech. The form of the latter verb will depend upon how the reporter looks at the facts contained in the speech of the speaker, for he does not report the actual words of the speaker but the facts contained in those words.

Consider the sentences—'I am living in Delhi'; 'My father died in 1930'; 'I have seen the Taj'—all spoken in the past. In the first sentence—'I am living in Delhi'—the reporter concludes that the speaker is still living in Delhi and reports this fact as, '*He (speaker) said (that) he is living in Delhi.*' He does not change the tense of the verb (*live*) used by the speaker in spite of the fact that the reporting verb (*said*) is in the past (since the act of speech took place in the past). The reporter could also have reported the same fact as, '*He said (that) he was living in Delhi,*' but this would not make it clear whether the speaker was still living in Delhi or had ceased to live there.

In reporting the fact contained in the second sentence of the speaker—'My father died in 1930'—the reporter need not change 'died' into 'had died'. He looks at the fact from his position in the present and says, '*He (speaker) said (that) his father died in 1930.*'

The third sentence—'I have seen the Taj'—contains two important elements—the fact that the speaker saw the Taj and the effect of the act of seeing on him. The reporter takes into consideration both these things and therefore chooses the verb form 'had seen' (not 'saw')—'*He (speaker) said (that) he had seen the Taj.*'

Reported Speech must be considered from three aspects: the speaker, the speech and the reporter. The most important of these is the reporter, for it is ultimately his point of view which prevails in the choice of the forms of words to report the facts contained in the speech of the speaker. This means that he views things in the past, present or future from his position in the present and reports them; and so the forms which are valid for him in this position are also valid in Reported Speech.

Consider the sentences—1. 'I will go to Delhi on Wednesday,' 2. 'I will go home on Saturday,'—both spoken on Monday, from the point of view of a reporter on the following Thursday. The speaker speaks on Monday and the reporter reports on the following Thursday what the speaker said on Monday. Consequently the future of the speaker is longer than the future of the reporter. A certain part of the future of the speaker is the past of the re-

porter. In reporting an act of speech in this area, therefore, the reporter has to reconcile these two conflicting factors (the speaker's future and the reporter's past), and this he does by using 'would'. He reports the first sentence of the speaker as, '*He (speaker) said (that) he would go to Delhi on Wednesday.*' The second sentence may be reported by him as, '*He (speaker) said (that) he would go home on Saturday,*' or '*He (speaker) said (that) he will go home on Saturday.*'

The following suggestions are offered for the teaching of Reported Speech:

(a) It should not be taught as a unit and finished in a fortnight or a month but should be interspersed with other items and spread over the whole course.

(b) The principle, 'Teach one thing at a time,' should be carefully followed and only one type of modification should be taught and practised at a time. [See also (i)]

(c) The material has been graded in the Junior High School syllabus according to certain linguistic and pedagogical principles and it is best taught in that order.

(d) Pupils should not be asked to learn any rules but should be given sufficient practice in reporting statements, questions and commands and requests; and for this purpose appropriate realistic situations should be built in the classroom. The pupils should be made aware of the speaker, the speech, the reporter and the listener.

(e) In order to consolidate what has been taught, opportunities should be provided to the pupils every day to revise and practise this material. The teacher, for instance, may say something to the class and then ask, 'What did I say to you?'

(f) Some of the substitution tables given on pages 2, 3 and 5—7 in *Drills and Exercises, Book Three* may be used for oral drills and written exercises.

(g) Short stories containing reported speech may be told to the pupils and then they may be asked to reproduce them, at first orally, and then in writing. Care should, however, be taken that the stories do not contain anything that has not been previously taught.

(h) The connective 'that' is often dropped in English while reporting a statement, and so the teacher should not insist upon the pupils using it.

(i) Teaching how to report questions will need much more time than the teaching of the reporting of statements or commands and requests. The questions in the reporting of which there is no modification of structure should be dealt with separately from those in the reporting of which there is modification of structure.

(j) Special care should be taken to see that the pupils do not get into the wrong habit of saying 'that what', 'that why', 'that where', etc., while reporting questions. This is a very common mistake, and it should be guarded against from the start.

The following lesson notes will give the teacher an idea of the procedure, the types of situations and the devices and techniques which have been found to be effective in the teaching of Reported Speech.

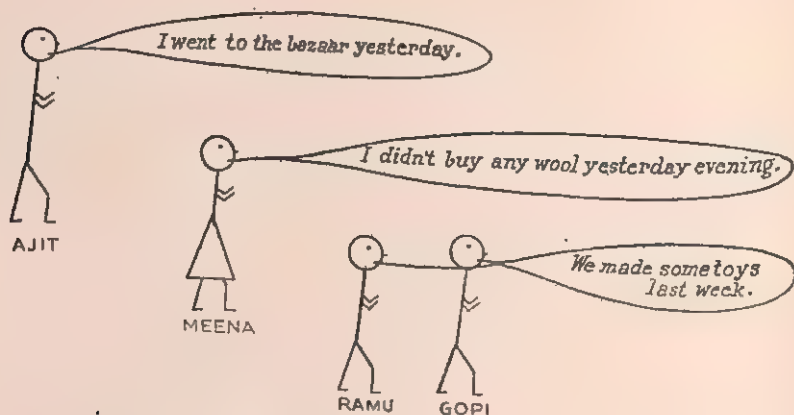
Teaching REPORTED SPEECH

In teaching Reported Speech it is essential to build up a situation in which the pupils may be aware of the speaker, the speech, the reporter and the listener. Such a situation can easily be created by means of the 'balloon' device. In reporting in the Present, for example, the teacher draws a human figure on the board and writes what he says in a balloon and the pupils report it. The pupils see that the speaker is saying something and they also see what he is saying. So, while reporting, they say without any hesitation, 'He is saying. . . .'. On the other hand, if one of the pupils says something and then another pupil reports it, two difficulties arise: (a) The speaker has finished speaking and so the reporter cannot say, 'He is saying. . . .'. (b) The speech of the speaker is not before the reporter and he may not remember it correctly. Both these difficulties are removed by using the 'balloon' device. In reporting in the Past the teacher writes sentences in the balloons and then rubs them off. The pupils then know that the act of speech took place in the Past. Elaborate drawings are not required. Stick figures will serve the purpose.

Reporting in the Present STATEMENTS in Simple Past and Simple Future (Point 162)

Step I. The teacher draws the following figures on the board, writes the names under the figures and the statements in the balloons. He draws the second figure after he has finished using the first,

and the third after the second has been used. The figures are, however, not rubbed off till the reporting of the statements in the balloons has been done by the class.



Teacher: Where did Ajit go yesterday?

Pupil A: He went to the bazaar yesterday.

Teacher: Yes, Ajit says he went to the bazaar yesterday.

Ajit says he went to the bazaar yesterday is written on the board.

Teacher: Did Meena buy any wool yesterday evening?

Pupil B: No, she didn't buy any wool yesterday evening.

Teacher: Yes, Meena says she didn't buy any wool yesterday evening.

Meena says she didn't buy any wool yesterday evening is written on the board.

Teacher: What did Ramu and Gopi make last week?

Pupil C: They made some toys last week.

Teacher: Yes, Ramu and Gopi say they made some toys last week.

Ramu and Gopi say they made some toys last week is written on the board.

Now the teacher asks questions and the pupils report the statements in the balloons in answer to the questions. The pupils must face the teacher and point to the speaker on the board so that

the situation thus created may warrant their saying: He says *he*; She says *she*...; They say *they*.....

Teacher: What does Ajit say?

Pupil D: He says he went to the bazaar yesterday.

Teacher: What does Meena say?

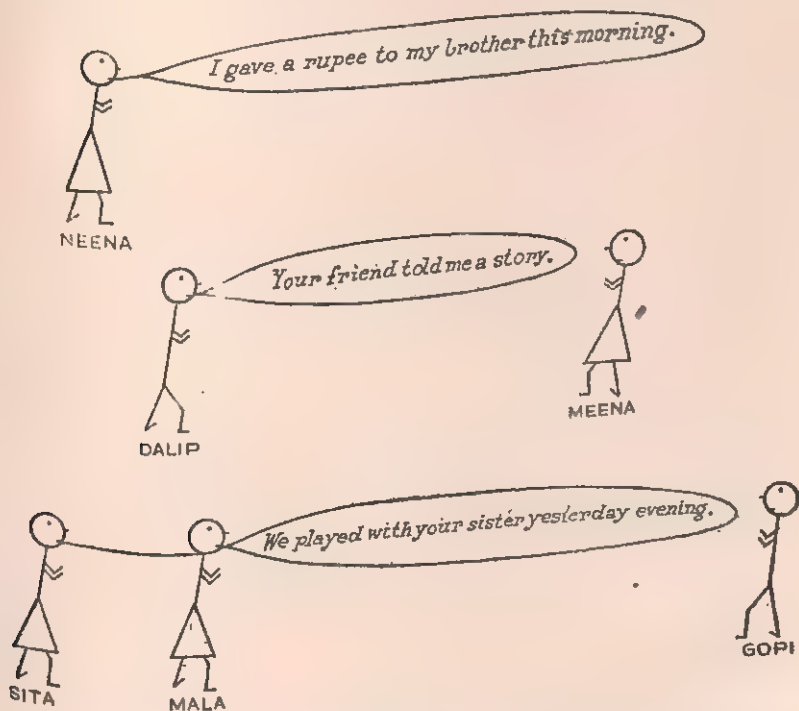
Pupil E: She says she didn't buy any wool yesterday evening.

Teacher: What do Ramu and Gopi say?

Pupil F: They say they made some toys last week.

These answers are repeated by the other pupils.

Step II. The teacher now draws a few more figures on the board and writes the statements in the balloons. The pupils report them in answer to the teacher's questions. As in *Step I* above, they should address the teacher and point to the relevant figures on the board while answering the questions.



Teacher: What's Neena saying?

Pupil A: She's saying she gave a rupee to her brother this morning.

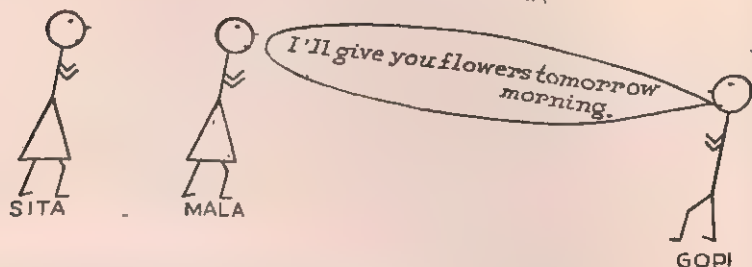
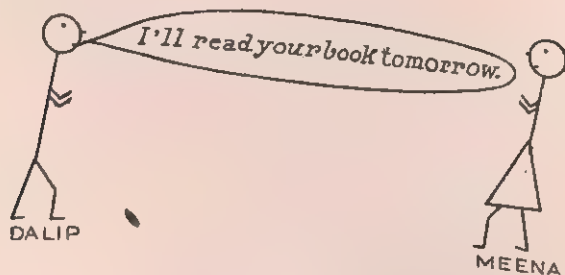
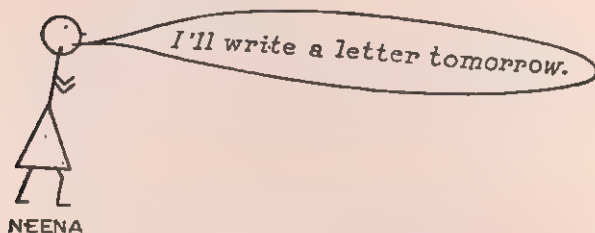
Teacher: What's Dalip saying to Meena?

Pupil B: He's saying to Meena her friend told him a story.

Teacher: What are Sita and Mala saying to Gopi?

Pupil C: They're saying to Gopi they played with his sister yesterday evening.

Step III. The teacher rubs off the sentences from the three balloons and writes other sentences instead. Additions and alterations in the figures may be made to practise the modification of different pronouns.



Teacher: What will Neena do tomorrow?

Pupil A: She'll write a letter tomorrow.

Teacher: Yes, Neena says she'll write a letter tomorrow.

Neena says she will write a letter tomorrow is written on the board.

Teacher: What will Dalip read tomorrow?

Pupil B: He'll read Meena's book tomorrow.

Teacher: Yes, Dalip says to Meena he'll read her book tomorrow.

Dalip says to Meena he will read her book tomorrow is written on the board.

Teacher: What will Gopi give Sita and Mala tomorrow morning?

Pupil C: He'll give them flowers tomorrow morning.

Teacher: Yes, Gopi says to Sita and Mala he'll give them flowers tomorrow morning.

Gopi says to Sita and Mala he will give them flowers tomorrow morning is written on the board.

Teacher: What's Neena saying?

Pupil D: She's saying she'll write a letter tomorrow.

Teacher: What's Dalip saying to Meena?

Pupil E: He's saying to her he'll read her book tomorrow.

Teacher: What's Gopi saying to Sita and Mala?

Pupil F: He's saying to them he'll give them flowers tomorrow morning.

Some more sentences in the Simple Future will be written in the balloons and reported by the pupils as above.

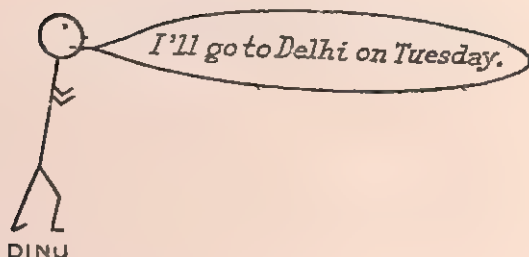
Step IV. The teacher draws the picture of a man, a woman and their two grown-up sons on the board. They are shown sitting in front of their house. All four of them in the picture are speaking. The man is saying, 'I'll go to the river-bank tomorrow.' The woman is saying, 'I'll go with you too.' The boys are saying, 'We went there yesterday, but we won't go there tomorrow.'

The teacher describes the picture reporting the statements and then the pupils describe it in the same way:

That's the washerman and that's his family. They're sitting in front of their house. The washerman is saying he'll go to the river-bank tomorrow. His wife is saying she'll go with him too. Their sons are saying they went there yesterday but they won't go there tomorrow.

Reporting in Simple Past of STATEMENTS in Simple Future
(Point 184)

Step I. The teacher draws the following figure on the board and writes *Dinu* under it and a statement inside the balloon.



He asks some of the pupils to read the statement and then rubs it off.

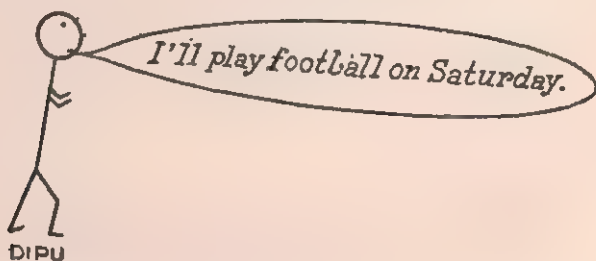
Teacher: Where did Dinu say he would go on Tuesday?

Pupil A: He said he would go to Delhi on Tuesday.

(The teacher helps pupil A to produce the answer.)

He then writes the statement—*Dinu said he would go to Delhi on Tuesday*—on the board and the pupils read it.

The teacher then draws another figure on the board and writes *Dipu* under it and the statement inside the balloon.



He asks some of the pupils to read the statement and then rubs it off.

Teacher: What did Dipu say he would play on Saturday?

Pupil C: He said he would play football on Saturday.

The teacher writes the statement—*Dipu said he would play football on Saturday*—on the board and the pupils read it aloud.

Teacher to Pupil D: Where will you go on Sunday afternoon?

Pupil D: I'll go to the park on Sunday afternoon.

Teacher: Where did D tell you he would go on Sunday afternoon?

Pupil E: He told us he would go to the park on Sunday afternoon.

The teacher puts the question to several pupils and gets the answer from them.

Teacher to Pupil D: What will you do in the park?

Pupil D: I'll fly a kite in the park.

Teacher: What did D tell you he would do in the park?

Pupil F: He told us he would fly a kite in the park.

The teacher puts the last question to several pupils and gets the answer from them.

For reinforcement, the sentences—*He told us he would go to the park on Sunday afternoon. He told us he would fly a kite in the park*—may be written on the board.

Step II. The teacher writes the following words on the board and some pupils make statements using the given words and the others report those statements.

will

*sing
swim
eat
make
read
travel
work
plough
count
catch*

Example

Pupil A: I'll sing a song tomorrow.

Pupil B: A told us he would sing a song tomorrow.

Pupil B: I'll swim in the river on Sunday.

Pupil C: B told us he would swim in the river on Sunday.

Pupil C: I'll eat a mango on Tuesday.

Pupil D: C told us he would eat a mango on Tuesday.

Pupil D: I'll make a chair on Friday morning.

Pupil E: D told us he would make a chair on Friday morning.

Pupil E: I'll read the newspaper this afternoon.

Pupil F: E told us he would read the newspaper this afternoon.

Step III. Reporting a statement by different persons:

Pupil A to B: I'll swim in the river on Sunday.

Pupil A to B: I told you I would swim in the river on Sunday.

Pupil A to C: I told B I would swim in the river on Sunday.

Pupil B to A: You told me you would swim in the river on Sunday.

Pupil M to B: He (A) told you he would swim in the river on Sunday.

Pupil X to Y: My father will plough his field on Friday morning.

Pupil Y to Z: He (X) told me his father would plough his field on Friday morning.

Pupil X to Z: I told him (Y) my father would plough his field on Friday morning.

Pupil P to Q: I'll catch fish on Thursday afternoon.

Pupil Q to R: He (P) told me he would catch fish on Thursday afternoon.

Pupil L to O: P told her (Q) he would catch fish on Thursday afternoon.

Pupil P to the Class: I told her (Q) I would catch fish on Thursday afternoon.

Step IV. The teacher draws on the board Substitution Table No. 6 given on page 3 in *Drills and Exercises in English, Book Three*. Each pupil reads two sentences from it and writes them in his note-book.

Reporting in the Past of QUESTIONS with an Asking Word
(Point 221)

Step I. The teacher asks the pupils questions which they answer and then report with the help of the teacher. The teacher writes the reported speech on the board.

Teacher: What's your name?

Pupil A: My name is A.

Teacher: Did I ask you what your name was?

Pupil A: Yes, *you asked me what my name was.*

Teacher: Did I ask A what his name was?

Pupil B: Yes, *you asked A what his name was.*

Teacher: What's your father?

Pupil C: My father is a doctor.

PRESENTATION OF THE MATERIAL

Teacher: Did I ask C what his father was?

Pupil D: Yes, *you asked C what his father was.*

Teacher: What are you doing?

Pupil E: I'm reading a book.

Teacher: Did I ask you what you were doing?

Pupil E: Yes, *you asked me what I was doing.*

Teacher: Did I ask E what he was doing?

Pupil F: Yes, *you asked him what he was doing.*

Teacher to Sita: Where do you live?

Sita: I live in Katra.

Teacher: Did I ask her where she lived?

Pupil H: Yes, *you asked her where she lived.*

Step II. The same procedure as above may be followed to teach and drill the reporting of *What*, *Where* and *When* questions in the Past and Future.

Teacher: What did you eat this morning?

Pupil A: I ate an apple.

Teacher to B: Did I ask A what he ate this morning?

Pupil C: Yes, *you asked A what he ate this morning.*

You asked A what he ate this morning should be repeated by several pupils and written on the board.

Teacher: Where will you go tomorrow?

Pupil C: I'll go to Delhi.

Teacher to D: Did I ask C where he would go tomorrow?

Pupil D: Yes, *you asked C where he would go tomorrow.*

You asked C where he would go tomorrow should be repeated by several pupils and written on the board.

Teacher: When did you play football?

Pupil E: I played football last Monday.

Teacher to F: Did I ask E when he played football?

Pupil F: Yes, *you asked E when he played football.*

You asked E when he played football is repeated by several pupils and written on the board.

Step III. Now some pupils ask questions and others report them. A question may be reported by the pupil who asks it and also by other pupils. The teacher gives the key-words.

Teacher to A: *What; do; tomorrow.*

A to B: What will you do tomorrow?

Teacher to A: What did you ask B?

A: I asked B what he would do tomorrow.

Teacher to B: What did A ask you?

B: A asked me what I would do tomorrow.

Teacher to B: Tell A what he asked you.

B to A: You asked me what I would do tomorrow.

Teacher to A: Tell B what you asked him.

A to B: I asked you what you would do tomorrow.

Teacher to C: Tell D what A asked B.

C to D: A asked B what he would do tomorrow.

Step IV. The teacher draws on the board Substitution Table No. 13 given on page 6 of *Drills and Exercises in English, Book Three* and each pupil reads two sentences from it.

Step V. The teacher asks questions with *What*, *Where* and *When* and the pupils answer them. As the pupils answer a question, both the question and the answer are written on the board. The pupils then report both question and answer, first orally and then in writing. First they report each question and answer separately, then the question and the answer together, and, finally, the whole conversation.

Question: What did you buy yesterday?

Answer: I bought a hat.

Question: Where did you buy it?

Answer: I bought it in the bazaar.

Question: When did you buy it?

Answer: I bought it yesterday.

(i)

Pupil A: The teacher asked Ram what he bought yesterday.

(ii) Pupil B: Ram replied that he bought a hat yesterday.

Pupil C: The teacher asked Ram where he bought the hat and Ram replied that he bought it in the bazaar.

(iii) Ram: The teacher asked me what I bought. Then he asked me where I bought it and when I bought it. I replied that I bought it in the bazaar yesterday.

Reporting in the Past

QUESTIONS without an Asking Word
(Point 233)

Step I. The teacher asks some questions and the pupils answer

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them. He helps the pupils to report each question and then writes the reported speech on the board.

To avoid confusion only *if* is used at this stage to connect the two clauses in each reporting. Generally, *whether* is used when there are two possibilities equally present in the speaker's mind and he is no more interested in the one than in the other; *if* is used when the emphasis is on the possibility that is stated.

(a) Teacher: Are you a pupil?

Pupil A: Yes, I am.

Teacher: Did I ask A if he was a pupil?

Pupil B: Yes, *you asked A if he was a pupil.*

(b) Teacher: Is Mohan a pupil?

Pupil C: Yes, he is.

Teacher: Did I ask C if Mohan was a pupil?

Pupil D: Yes, *you asked C if Mohan was a pupil.*

(c) Teacher: Am I a teacher?

Pupil E: Yes, you are.

Teacher: Did I ask E if I was a teacher?

Pupil F: Yes, *you asked him if you were a teacher.*

(d) Teacher (pointing to a picture): Is that man a carpenter?

Pupil G: Yes, he is.

Teacher: Did I ask G if that man was a carpenter?

Pupil H: Yes, *you asked G if that man was a carpenter.*

(e) Teacher (pointing to a picture): Is Hari ploughing his field?

Pupil K: Yes, he is.

Teacher: Did I ask K if Hari was ploughing his field?

Pupil L: Yes, *you asked K if Hari was ploughing his field.*

(f) Teacher: Are those boys reading their books?

Pupil M: Yes, they are.

Teacher: Did I ask M if those boys were reading their books?

Pupil N: Yes, *you asked M if those boys were reading their books.*

(g) Teacher: Am I writing on the board?

Pupil O: Yes, you are.

Teacher: Did I ask O if I was writing on the board?

Pupil P: Yes, *you asked O if you were writing on the board.*

Each question will be reported by several pupils.

Step II.

(a) Teacher: Do you drink tea every day?

Pupil R: Yes, I do.

Teacher: Did I ask R if he drank tea every day?

Pupil S: Yes, *you asked R if he drank tea every day.*

(b) Teacher: Does Ram eat an egg every day?

Pupil T: Yes, he does.

Teacher: Did I ask you if Ram ate an egg every day?

Pupil T: Yes, *you asked me if Ram ate an egg every day.*

Teacher: Does Sita wear a saree every day?

Pupil X: Yes, she does.

Teacher: Did I ask you if Sita wore a saree every day?

Pupil X: Yes, *you asked me if Sita wore a saree every day.*

Each question will be reported by several pupils.

Step III.

(a) Teacher: Did you go to the cinema yesterday?

Pupil K: Yes, I did.

Teacher: Did I ask K if he went to the cinema yesterday?

Pupil L: Yes, *you asked K if he went to the cinema yesterday.*

Teacher: Did you play football yesterday?

Pupil M: Yes, I did.

Teacher: Did I ask M if he played football yesterday?

Pupil N: Yes, *you asked M if he played football yesterday.*

(b) Teacher: Will you eat a mango tomorrow morning?

Pupil A: Yes, I will.

Teacher: Did I ask you if you would eat a mango tomorrow morning?

Pupil A: Yes, *you asked me if I would eat a mango tomorrow morning.*

Teacher: Did I ask A if he would eat a mango tomorrow morning?

Pupil B: Yes, *you asked him if he would eat a mango tomorrow morning.*

Each question will be reported by several pupils.

Step IV.

(a) Teacher: Have you a pencil?

Pupil G: Yes, I have.

Teacher: Did I ask G if he had a pencil?

Pupil H: Yes, *you asked him if he had a pencil.*

(b) Teacher: Has Sita a beautiful saree?

Pupil M: Yes, she has.

Teacher: Did I ask M if Sita had a beautiful saree?

Pupil N: Yes, *you asked him if Sita had a beautiful saree.*

(c) Teacher: Can you read Urdu?

Pupil J: Yes, I can.

Teacher: Did I ask J if he could read Urdu?

Pupil K: Yes, *you asked him if he could read Urdu.*

Teacher: Can you go to the party tomorrow?

Pupil L: No, I can't.

Teacher: Did I ask L if he could go to the party tomorrow?

Pupil M: Yes, *you asked him if he could go to the party tomorrow.*

Each question will be reported by several pupils.

Step V. The teacher writes the following words on the board and the pupils frame questions using the given words and then report them with the help of the teacher. After the oral work has been done, the pupils write in their note-books the questions as reported by them orally.

<i>Is</i>	<i>sing</i>
<i>Are</i>	<i>eat</i>
<i>Was</i>	<i>plough</i>
<i>Were</i>	<i>buy</i>
<i>Will</i>	<i>play</i>
<i>Did</i>	<i>go</i>
<i>Have</i>	<i>swim</i>
<i>Can</i>	<i>dance</i>
<i>Does</i>	<i>look</i>
<i>Do</i>	<i>come</i>

Example

Pupil A: Is Hari singing a song?

Pupil B: Yes, he is.

Teacher to A: Tell me what you asked B.

Pupil A: *I asked B if Hari was singing a song.*

Pupil C to D: Are Hari and Mohan eating mangoes?

Pupil D: Yes, they are.

Teacher to M: What did C ask D?

Pupil M: *C asked D if Hari and Mohan were eating mangoes.*

Pupil K: Was Gopi ploughing his field yesterday?

Pupil L: Yes, he was.

Teacher to K: Tell L what you asked him.

Pupil K to L: *I asked you if Gopi was ploughing his field yesterday.*

Pupil X: Will you buy a pen tomorrow?

Pupil Y: Yes, I will.

Teacher to Z: What did X ask Y?

Pupil Z: *X asked Y if he would buy a pen tomorrow.*

Pupil R: Did Hari go to his house yesterday?

Pupil S: Yes, he did.

Teacher to S: Tell R what he asked you.

Pupil S to R: *You asked me if Hari went to his house yesterday.*

Pupil K: Have you a book?

Pupil L: No, I haven't.

Teacher to K: What did you ask L?

Pupil K: *I asked L if he had a book.*

Pupil R: Can you dance?

Pupil S: No, I can't.

Teacher to R: Tell me what you asked S.

Pupil R to Teacher: *I asked S if he could dance.*

Pupil P: Does the postman come to this school every day?

Pupil X: Yes, he does.

Teacher to P: Tell X what you asked him.

Pupil P to X: *I asked you if the postman came to this school every day.*

Pupil J: Do Ram and Mohan play football every day?

Pupil K: Yes, they do.

Teacher to K: Tell M what J asked you.

Pupil K to M: *J asked me if Ram and Mohan played football every day.*

INFINITIVE OF PURPOSE (Point 205)

There is no need for pupils to be told the definition of an infinitive (or any other grammatical category or part of speech), as this does not serve any useful purpose. The important thing to learn and master is to use the new point correctly and with confidence. The purposive aspect of the 'to-infinitive' should be

clear from the context. It should either be obvious (in a physical situation) or told to the pupils (in a verbal situation). An easy and logical way of teaching the 'to-infinitive' is by linking it with 'Why'. 'Why' elicits the subject's purpose—'Why did Hari go to the bazaar? He went there to buy mangoes.' The teacher should, however, be careful in selecting the verbs; for some verbs in questions beginning with 'Why' do not elicit the infinitive of purpose but the clause beginning with 'because'. For example, (a) 'Why did he cry? He cried because he had a pain in his stomach.' (b) 'Why was he sad? He was sad because he had failed in the examination.'

Teaching the INFINITIVE OF PURPOSE (SV to V; SV adv to V)

Step I. The teacher points to the box in his hand and says, 'There's a picture in this box. I've not seen it. I'll open the box and see the picture.' He opens the box then, takes the picture out and has a good look at it. Now he points to the box and the picture and says, '*I opened the box to see this picture.*' He repeats the sentence and then asks the question, '*Why did I open the box, Hari?*' He pauses for an answer and Hari says, 'You opened the box to see the picture.' If he fumbles, the teacher gives the cue—*You opened; to see.* He asks some pupils to put the question beginning with 'Why' and others to answer it. He then writes the question and the answer on the board.

The teacher whispers instructions to Dinu who performs the required actions. The teacher points to Dinu and says, 'Dinu is hungry. He did not have breakfast this morning. He is taking an apple out of his bag. He is cutting it. He will eat it in a few minutes.' The teacher now points to the slices of apple and says, '*Dinu has cut the apple to eat it.*' He then asks the question, '*Why has Dinu cut the apple, Sita?*' Sita answers, 'He has cut the apple to eat it.' Some pupils ask the question and others answer it. The teacher guides them by giving key-words (*Why has; to eat*). He then writes the question and the answer on the board.

The teacher now says, 'I've not read today's paper. I'll take it out of my bag and read it now.' He takes the paper out of his bag and says, '*I've taken the paper out of my bag to read it.*' He asks the question, '*Why have I taken the paper out of my bag, Gopi?*' Gopi says, 'You've taken the paper out of your bag to read it.' Some pupils ask questions beginning with 'Why' (point-

ing to the three situations in this step) and others answer them. The teacher guides them as before.

Step II. The teacher creates other situations to practise 'Why' and the 'to-infinitive'.

Examples

(a) Teacher: Sita is coming to me. She wants a rupee. I'm giving it to her. (Sita goes back to her seat.) *

Hari to Rahim: (*Why did*) Why did Sita go to the teacher?

Rahim: (*to get*) She went to the teacher to get a rupee.

(b) Teacher: Hari has brought some coloured chalk today. He'll draw some pictures.

Sita to Kamu: (*Why has*) Why has Hari brought some coloured chalk today?

Kamu: (*to draw*) He has brought it to draw pictures.

(c) Teacher: Dipu has bought a bat. He'll play cricket with it this afternoon.

Girish to Ravi: (*Why has*) Why has Dipu bought a bat?

Ravi: (*to play*) He has bought a bat to play cricket.

Step III. Teacher (pointing to a book): There's a picture of a queen in this book. I want to find it, so I am turning the pages carefully.

He finds the queen's picture and shows it to the class. He then says, '*I turned the pages of this book carefully to find this picture.*' He repeats the sentence, writes it on the board and asks the question, '*Why did I turn the pages of this book carefully?*' The pupils answer the question using the key-words supplied by the teacher (*to find*): '*You turned the pages of the book carefully to find that picture.*'

The teacher gives a thick, strong rope to two pupils. He asks them to pull it hard and try to break it. The boys pull the rope hard but are not able to break it. The teacher then says, '*They pulled the rope hard to break it.*' He repeats the sentence and asks the question, '*Why did they pull the rope hard, Hari?*' Hari says, '*They pulled it hard to break it.*'

Step IV. The teacher uses the Question-Answer device to drill the new points. He writes two groups of words on the board. One pupil uses the first group and asks a question beginning with 'Why'.

His neighbour answers it using the second group. The pupil

sitting next to him then asks a question using another set of given words.

Example

Group I
ring the bell
run very fast
work hard
go to the kitchen
buy a present
come quickly
bring a letter-pad
walk fast

Group II
to write
to send
to call
to catch
to see
to win
to cook
to pass

Hari to Gopal: Why did they ring the bell?

Gopi: They rang the bell to call the servant.

Sita to Dinu: Why has he brought a letter-pad?

Dinu: He has brought a letter-pad to write letters.

Step V. The teacher draws two substitution tables on the board. Each pupil reads two sentences from them. Then they write four sets of sentences in their note-books.

sets of sentences in their note-books.

A	Why did the		boys men girls farmers		run walk	fast?
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B	They	ran walked	fast	to	catch	the	bus train thief village station market	in time by 10 o'clock before dark
					reach			

Example

Why did the boys run fast?

They ran fast to reach the station in time.

The same procedure should be followed to teach Point 206.

THE PASSIVE VOICE (Points 217 and 218)

The Passive constructions constitute a very important part of the English language. A lot of harm has been done to the teaching of English by treating the Passive as merely a structural alternative to the Active. The Passive is distinct from the Active and operates in its own right. There are many constructions in the Active—(i) *The monkey climbed up the tree.* (ii) *The lady was riding a white horse,* etc.—which would appear incongruous if put in the Passive. Vice versa, there are many constructions in the Passive—(i) *The old man was run over by a car.* (ii) *He was killed in an accident,* etc.—which would sound absurd if changed into the Active.

Another false notion about the Passive is that it must invariably have the *by* agent. A large proportion of Passive constructions do not, in fact, have the *by* agent.

There are four main contexts in which Passive constructions are used:

- (a) When the performer of an action or the cause of a state or an action is either not known or is known vaguely.
 - (i) *The child was lost in the crowd.*
 - (ii) *The house was well furnished.*
 - (iii) *The fort was built long ago.*
- (b) When the performer of an action or the cause of an action or a state is clear from the context and needs no explanation.
 - (i) *The wounded soldiers were left behind.*
 - (ii) *English is spoken all over the world.*
 - (iii) *The cows have not been fed this morning.*
- (c) When for some reason the performer of an action or a state is not mentioned.
 - (i) *It was decided that he should go to England.*
 - (ii) *A lot of harm has been done to the building.*
 - (iii) *Tea has been spilt all over the table.*
- (d) When the main interest is in the predicate. (If the agent

also has some interest of its own and is necessary to complete the sense, the *by* agent is used.)

- (i) The Taj was built in the 17th century by Shah Jahan.
- (ii) Dipu has been appointed monitor by the teacher.
- (iii) Nothing can be done by him.

Passive constructions are mostly used in formal essays and treatises, particularly where processes or events are described objectively. The descriptions of processes, therefore, provide very good material for teaching the Passive Voice.

The pupils should not be asked to change sentences from the Active to the Passive. The latter should be taught separately without linking it with the Active and without defining or describing it.

The teaching of the Passive can start with the construction *SV+p.p.* (as adj.)—*My sister is married*. These constructions, though passive in meaning, are adjectival in form and are analogous to the structure 'My sister is happy', which is already known to the pupils. Other verb forms like *puzzled, satisfied, displeased, coloured, painted, shocked*, etc., can thus be taught. These indicate a state and with the neutral verb *am/is/are* convey an essentially static concept.

Teaching the PASSIVE VOICE

Step I. The teacher whispers instructions to Sita, Dipu, Hari and Gopi. Gopi acts as the postman. He comes into the classroom carrying a bag on his shoulder and two letters and a parcel in his hand. He gives the letters to Dipu who is very pleased to get them. Hari, Dipu's neighbour, holds out his hand expectantly but the postman says that there are not any letters for him. Hari is disappointed. He tells Dipu that he has not received any letters from his mother and is worried. The postman gives a parcel to Sita. She is pleasantly surprised and opens the parcel quickly. It contains four bangles, two of which are broken.

As the postman comes into the classroom and slowly performs these actions, the teacher says, 'The postman is coming into the classroom. He is giving two letters to Dipu. Dipu is smiling. He is very pleased. Hari is expecting a letter too. But the postman says that there aren't any letters for him. Hari is disappointed. He is telling Dipu that he hasn't had a letter from his mother

and that he *is worried*. The postman is now giving a parcel to Sita. Sita *is very surprised*. She is opening the parcel now. There are four bangles in it. Two of them *are broken*.'

The teacher now asks questions and the pupils answer them.

Teacher: What did the postman give Dipu?

Pupil A: He gave him two letters.

Teacher: Was Dipu pleased?

Pupil B: Yes, he was very pleased.

Teacher: Did Hari get any letters?

Pupil C: No, he didn't.

Teacher: Was he pleased?

Pupil D: No, he wasn't pleased. He was very disappointed.

Teacher: What did he tell Dipu?

Pupil E: He told Dipu that he hadn't had a letter from his mother and that he was worried.

Teacher: Was Sita worried too?

Pupil F: No, she wasn't worried. She was surprised.

Teacher: Why was she surprised?

Pupil G: She was surprised to get a parcel.

Teacher: What was in the parcel?

Pupil H: There were four bangles in the parcel.

Teacher: Were all the four bangles broken?

Pupil I: No, all the four bangles were not broken. Only two of them were broken.

Step II. The teacher then supplies the key-words and the pupils ask questions and answer them.

Teacher: I love tea. I have three cups of tea every morning.
How is tea made? Can you tell me?

The teacher then writes *How a cup of tea is made* on the board.

Teacher: What is the kettle filled with?

Pupil A: The kettle is filled with water.

Teacher: Where is it put then?

Pupil B: It is put on the fire.

Teacher: Why is it put on the fire?

Pupil C: It is put on the fire to boil the water.

Teacher: Is the water put into the tea-pot then?

Pupil D: No, it isn't. First the tea-pot is rinsed with hot water.

Teacher: What is done next?

Pupil E: Tea-leaves are then put into the tea-pot.

Teacher: What is done next?

Pupil F: The boiling water is poured into the tea-pot.

Teacher: Is the tea-pot covered?

Pupil G: Yes, it is covered with a tea-cosy.

Teacher: Is the tea then poured into the cups?

Pupil H: No, it isn't. It is brewed for five minutes.

Teacher: What is done next?

Pupil I: The tea is poured into the cups.

Teacher: What is added to it?

Pupil J: Milk and sugar are added to it.

Teacher: Is it stirred then?

Pupil K: Yes, it is. It is stirred with a spoon.

Teacher: Is the tea drunk then?

Pupil L: Yes, it is drunk then.

As the pupils answer the questions the teacher writes the answers on the board and the pupils copy them in their note-books. In order to build a coherent piece of composition, the teacher modifies the answers slightly. The whole piece then reads as follows:

The kettle is filled with water. Then it is put on the fire. The water is boiled but it is not put into the tea-pot. First, the tea-pot is rinsed with hot water. Next, tea-leaves are put into the pot. Then the hot water from the kettle is poured into it and it is covered with a tea-cosy. The tea is brewed for five minutes. It is poured into the cups. Milk and sugar are added to it. The tea is stirred with a spoon and then is drunk.

Step III. The teacher asks questions and the pupils answer them. He then writes the sentences in italics below on the board and the pupils copy them in their note-books.

Teacher: Now we will talk about the Taj Mahal. Where is the Taj Mahal, Dinu?

Dinu: It is in Agra.

Teacher: Where is the Taj Mahal situated in Agra?

Pupil A: It is situated on the banks of the Yamuna.

The teacher repeats the questions and gets other pupils to answer them.

The Taj Mahal is situated on the banks of the river Yamuna in Agra.

Teacher: When was it built?

Pupil B: It was built in the 17th century.

It was built in the 17th century.

Teacher: Who was it built by?

Pupil C: It was built by Shah Jahan.

Teacher: Why did he build it?

Pupil D: He built it in memory of his queen Mumtaz Mahal.

It was built by Shah Jahan in memory of his queen Mumtaz Mahal.

Teacher: Did she die at a young age?

Pupil G: Yes, she did.

Teacher: Was Shah Jahan very grieved at her death?

Pupil H: Yes, he was.

She died at a young age and Shah Jahan was very grieved at her death.

Teacher: What is the Taj built of?

Pupil I: It is built of white marble.

The Taj is built of white marble.

Teacher: Where was the marble brought from?

Pupil J: The marble was brought from Jaipur.

The marble was brought from Jaipur.

Teacher: How many workers were employed to build it?

Pupil K: Thousands of workers were employed to build it.

Thousands of workers were employed to build it.

Teacher: How much money was spent on it?

Pupil L: Crores of rupees were spent on it.

Crores of rupees were spent on it.

Teacher: In how many years was the Taj built?

Pupil M: The Taj was built in thirty years.

The Taj was built in thirty years.

Teacher: Is the Taj visited by many people every year?

Pupil N: Yes, it is.

The Taj is visited by many people every year.

Teacher: Does the Taj look beautiful in the day?

Pupil O: Yes, it does.

Teacher: Is its beauty increased in the light of the moon?

Pupil P: Yes, it is.

It looks beautiful in the day but its beauty is greatly increased in the light of the moon.

Teacher: Is the Taj admired by all visitors?

Pupil Q: Yes, it is.

Teacher: Are Shah Jahan and Mumtaz Mahal remembered by them?

Pupil R: Yes, they are.

The Taj is admired by all visitors and Shah Jahan and Mumtaz Mahal are remembered by them.

The teaching of the Passive also provides an excellent opportunity for controlled composition, as the Passive is best taught in an extended context.

QUESTION-TAGS (Points 237 and 238)

Question-tags, as the name suggests, are short questions put at the end of (tagged on to) statements. They consist of an anomalous finite and a sequence signal.

Question-tags have various purposes in language:

(i) They may be used to open a conversation or invite interest.

A: Hari loves mangoes, doesn't he?

B: Yes, he does.

In the above example, A, the speaker, knows that Hari loves mangoes—he knows that his statement is true. He uses a question-tag, however, to channel conversation in a particular direction or to make B comment on his statement. B, the listener, need not respond in the negative or the affirmative. He might put a counter-question and say, 'Don't you?' or give additional information and say, 'I love mangoes too.'

In a sentence of the above type the tone falls (Tune I) on both 'mangoes' and 'doesn't'. In this type of tag, the speaker is reasonably sure that what he says is correct and that the listener will agree with him.

(ii) Question-tags sometimes function as pure questions:

A: You are going to play cricket tomorrow, aren't you?

B: No, I'm not./Yes, I am.

A, the speaker, started the sentence, then doubted its veracity and put a question-tag at the end, expecting an answer, not necessarily a confirmation.

In question-tags of this type the tone rises (Tune II) on 'doesn't he?'

In question-tags the anomalous finite takes on the negative form if the main statement is in the positive; and if the statement is in the negative the question-tag is in the positive.

They were late, weren't they?

They weren't late, were they?

The teaching of question-tags start in the third year of English. At this stage the pure question type of tag is not taught but only type (i) above. To begin with, the question-tag in the negative is balanced against the statement in the positive. When this form has been established, the other form—negative versus positive—is introduced.

Question-tags in English present some difficulty because of their great variety. Speakers of Hindi and Urdu particularly find it difficult to use the correct question-tag to an English sentence because in Hindi and Urdu there is only one fixed question-tag—'hai na?'

Teaching QUESTION-TAGS

[In all the following statements with question-tags, the tone falls on the last stressed syllable in the statement and on the first word of the tag.]

Step I. Teacher to A: That's a story-book, isn't it?

(A significant pause at the end of the utterance will prompt A to answer.)

Pupil A: Yes, it is.

The sentence—*That's a story-book, isn't it?* —is written on the board.

Teacher to B: Those are your handkerchiefs, aren't they?

Pupil B: Yes, they are.

The sentence—*Those are your handkerchiefs, aren't they?*—is written on the board.

The teacher then points to different things and supplies the key-words. The pupils make sentences using question-tags.

Examples

Pupil C to D: (*friend, aren't you?*) You are my friend, aren't you?

Pupil D: Yes, I am.

Pupil D to E: (*farmer, isn't he?*) Hari is a farmer, isn't he?

Pupil E: Yes, he is.

Pupil E to F: (*beautiful, isn't she?*) Meena is beautiful, isn't she?

Pupil F: Yes, she is.

Pupil F to G: (*green, aren't they?*) Those pencils are green, aren't they?

Pupil G: Yes, they are.

Pupil G to H: (*cold, isn't it?*) It is cold today, isn't it?

Pupil H: Yes, it is.

Step II. Teacher to I: You played cricket yesterday, didn't you?
(A significant pause at the end of the utterance will prompt I to answer.)

Pupil I: Yes, I did.

The sentence—*You played cricket yesterday, didn't you?*—is written on the board.

Teacher to J: You will go to the fair tomorrow, won't you?

Pupil J: Yes, I will.

The sentence—*You will go to the fair tomorrow, won't you?*—is written on the board.

The teacher writes the following groups of words on the board:

<i>made baskets</i>		<i>will make baskets</i>	
<i>ate mangoes</i>		<i>will eat mangoes</i>	
<i>drank tea</i>	<i>didn't....?</i>	<i>will drink tea</i>	<i>won't....?</i>
<i>had lunch</i>		<i>will have lunch</i>	
<i>saw a film</i>		<i>will see a film</i>	

One of the pupils uses one of the above groups of words in a sentence adding the appropriate question-tag. His neighbour answers it and makes another sentence using the tag. In this way, there is a chain of statements and answers and the pattern is established.

Examples

Pupil A to B: Your friend made baskets yesterday, didn't he?

Pupil B: Yes, he did.

Pupil B to C: Sita saw a film yesterday, didn't she?

Pupil C: Yes, she did.

Pupil C to D: You will have lunch with me tomorrow, won't you?

Pupil D: Yes, I will.

Step III. Teacher to A: You can tell me this story, can't you? (A significant pause at the end of the utterance will prompt A to answer.)

Pupil A: Yes, I can.

The teacher writes the sentence—*You can tell me this story, can't you?*—on the board.

Teacher to B: Dinu has a dog, hasn't he?

Pupil B: Yes, he has.

The sentence—*Dinu has a dog, hasn't he?*—is written on the board.

Teacher to C: You have two brothers, haven't you?

Pupil C: Yes, I have.

The sentence—*You have two brothers, haven't you?*—is written on the board.

The teacher writes the following groups of words on the board:

<i>can swim</i>		<i>have many friends</i>	
<i>can play</i>		<i>have my bag</i>	<i>haven't....?</i>
<i>can lift</i>	<i>can't....?</i>	<i>has four books</i>	<i>hasn't....?</i>
<i>can paint</i>		<i>has a car</i>	
<i>can see</i>		<i>has black eyes</i>	

One pupil makes a statement using one of the above groups of words adding the appropriate question-tag, and his neighbour gives the answer and makes another statement using another group of words.

Examples

Pupil A to B: You can swim, can't you?

Pupil B: Yes, I can.

Pupil B to C: Gopi has black eyes, hasn't he?

Pupil C: Yes, he has.

Step IV. The teacher writes the following groups of words on the board:

are reading
is crying
will buy
went
can sing
has a farm

The pupils make sentences orally adding question-tags, and then write them in their note-books.

Examples

The boys are reading, aren't they?
 The baby is crying, isn't it?
 Hari will buy a gun tomorrow, won't he?
 They went to their village yesterday, didn't they?
 Sita can sing English songs, can't she?
 Hari has a farm, hasn't he?

Negative statements with positive tags should be similarly taught.

RELATIVE CLAUSES

The teaching of relative clauses is introduced towards the end of the third year of English when the pupils can handle, expertly and confidently, not only simple sentences but also longer utterances containing connectives like 'and', 'but', 'when', 'before', 'after' and 'while'.

The relative clause is a linguistic economy. Two separate utterances are welded into one and the meaning is conveyed aptly and concisely. For example, instead of saying 'The old lady has been killed. The old lady told us amusing stories yesterday.' (which is clumsy and inept), the common device in English is to combine the two sentences by using a relative—*The old lady who told us amusing stories yesterday has been killed.* The teacher should, however, bear in mind that the relative clause is *not* used as a substitute for phrases. 'The man who is in the corner is my friend' will not be commonly used by the native speaker. He will instead use a determinative prepositional phrase and say, 'The man in the corner is my friend'. Relative pronouns are used to link sentences when the meaning cannot be conveyed by phrases, e.g. *That is the man who stole my watch. I have seen the house which Mr Sharma bought last year.* The relative pronouns, however, do not appear invariably in all utterances. They are sometimes omitted.

There are two distinct types of relative clauses in English:

- (i) Descriptive, Non-restrictive or Non-defining
- (ii) Determinative, Restrictive or Defining

Descriptive clauses are parenthetical remarks. They are thrown

in casually as an after-thought in the main stream of speech and are analogous to phrases used in apposition, e.g. 'Milton, a great English poet, was blind.' 'Milton, who was a great English poet, was blind.' These clauses are characterized by:

- (a) a separate intonation pattern which focuses attention on the main speech.
- (b) an appreciable pause between the relative and its antecedent. In written English, this pause is signalled by punctuation marks—commas or dashes.

As the descriptive clause is not an integral part of the sentence, it can be dropped without effecting any change in the meaning of the main clause, e.g. 'That tall gentleman, who is sitting in the corner, is a famous Hindi poet.' 'Guavas, which we relish, are not sold in England.' The clauses—'who is sitting in the corner' and 'which we relish'—are superfluous to the central idea and can be dispensed with.

Descriptive relative clauses are used much less frequently than determinative relative clauses, and therefore their teaching is postponed to the fourth or fifth year of English.

Determinative relative clauses are taught in the third year of English. The English language uses the determinative clause as a limiting device to determine (restrict, or define) its antecedent:

1. The man who came here yesterday is the Mayor of Delhi.
2. That is the necklace which I bought last year.

The relative clauses 'who came here yesterday' and 'which I bought last year' are integral parts of the utterances and help to identify a particular 'man' and a particular 'necklace' by limiting their areas of meaning. The antecedent and the relative clause form one indivisible unit. Sometimes the relative pronoun is dropped and then there is the closest juncture between the antecedent and the relative clause.

The determinative relative clause does not have an independent intonation pattern. It conforms to the intonation pattern of the complete utterance.

The two main problems involved in the teaching of relative clauses are

- (a) their position in the sentence:
 - (i) When are they placed at the end of the main clause?
 - (ii) When are they placed between the word they qualify

and the verb of the main clause, thereby splitting the main clause?

(b) the various linking devices that are used.

The findings of recent research on determinative relative clauses in spoken English indicate

(i) the importance of placing these clauses immediately after the antecedents they qualify and having them follow the completed main clause:

'There were some bad apples in the fruit which came from the market yesterday' would be preferred to 'Some of the apples in the fruit which came from the market yesterday were bad.'

(ii) that as Subject the linking word—most commonly *who* (personal) and *which* (non-personal)—is always expressed; and that as Object it is usually omitted:

He's a boy who works hard.

That's an argument which is hard to follow.

That's the man I spoke to yesterday.

She has just found the necklace she lost last year.

(iii) that where a short relative clause qualifies a non-personal antecedent at or near the beginning of a sentence, *that* is usual as Subject:

The watch that was lost has just been found.

(iv) that where the relative pronoun is governed by a preposition and the antecedent is non-personal the commonest link is *which* preceded by the preposition (but if the clause is short, *that* may be used with the preposition coming after the verb); where the antecedent is personal (fairly rare in speech anyway) there is a slight preference to omit the relative pronoun and place the preposition finally:

It's an ideal to which even the humblest citizen has always been loyal.

It's an ideal that I have always been loyal to.

He's the man I gave it to.

While recording the mistakes of its students, the English Language Teaching Institute found that a very large number use a second subject in relative clauses. ('The man who came to my house this morning *he* is a doctor.' 'The mangoes that I ate this morning *they* were raw.') The error is mainly due to the pull of

the mother tongue. The teacher should forestall this mistake and take special care to drill the correct structure so that it may become automatic.

Teaching the Relative WHO (Point 240)

Step I.

Teacher : What does a cobbler do?

Pupil A: He mends shoes.

Teacher : *A cobbler is a man who mends shoes.*

The teacher then asks the pupils to define a cobbler. He suggests the key-words *who mends*. The pupils say, 'A cobbler is a man who mends shoes.' The teacher writes the sentence on the board and the pupils copy it in their note-books.

Teacher : What does a fisherman do?

Pupil B: He catches fish.

Teacher : *A fisherman is a man who catches fish.*

The pupils are then asked to define a fisherman. The key-words *who catches* are given to them. The pupils say, 'A fisherman is a man who catches fish.' The sentence is written on the board and is copied by the pupils.

Teacher : What does a nurse do?

Pupil C: She looks after sick people.

Teacher : *A nurse is a woman who looks after sick people.*

The teacher gives the key-words *who looks after* and the pupils define a nurse. The sentence is written on the board and is copied by the pupils.

Teacher : What does a goldsmith do?

Pupil D: *He makes ornaments of gold.*

Teacher : *A goldsmith is a man who makes ornaments of gold.*

The teacher then asks the pupils to define a goldsmith. He suggests the key-words *who makes*. The pupils say, 'A goldsmith is a man who makes ornaments of gold.' The teacher writes the sentence on the board and the pupils copy it in their note-books.

Step II. Similarly, the teacher elicits facts about the work of the undermentioned people and then asks the pupils to define them. The answers are written on the board and copied by the pupils.

A soldier is a man who fights for his country.

A shepherd is a man who looks after his sheep.

A doctor is a man who treats sick people.

A postman is a man who distributes letters and parcels.

An actress is a woman who acts in plays and films.

A painter is a man who paints pictures.

A judge is a man who decides cases in a law court.

A farmer is a man who ploughs the fields, sows the seed and reaps the harvest.

Step III. The teacher shows a picture of Shah Jahan to the class and says, 'This is a king. He built the Taj Mahal. *This is the king who built the Taj Mahal.*' He gives the key-words (*king who built*) and the pupils repeat the sentence. The teacher then supplies different key-words, and the pupils point to the picture and make sentences using them. He writes the sentences on the board and the pupils copy them in their note-books.

Pupil A: (*king who; peacock throne*) That is the king who made the peacock throne.

Pupil B: (*king who married*) That is the king who married Mumtaz Mahal.

Pupil C: (*king who was imprisoned*) That is the king who was imprisoned by his son.

Pupil D: (*king who is buried*) That is the king who is buried in the Taj.

Step IV. The teacher draws an incomplete substitution table on the board. The pupils complete the table and then write six sentences from it in their note-books.

Yester-day	I	met		man		—been to—
Last Monday	We	saw	a	woman	who	could —
Last week	Dinu	talked to		China-man		had—in the last War
Last month	Sita	travelled with		farmer		eats raw —
						has a —

Examples

1. Yesterday I met a Chinaman who has been to America.
2. Last Monday Sita talked to a farmer who eats raw potatoes.
3. Last month we travelled with a woman who could speak French.
4. Last week Dinu saw a man who had fought in the last War.
5. Yesterday I met a farmer who has a car.

Similarly, the structure in which the main clause is split into two by the relative clause may be taught.

Example

Teacher : This is a beautiful bag, isn't it? It was made by a woman. She is my friend.

The woman who made this bag is my friend.

The above sentence is written on the board and read by the pupils. The teacher supplies the key-words and the pupils make sentences using them.

Examples

Pupil A: (*The woman who; friend*) The woman who made that bag is your friend.

Teacher : She is called Sarla.

Pupil B: (*Sarla*) The woman who made that bag is called Sarla.

Teacher : She is old.

Pupil C: (*old*) The woman who made that bag is old.

Teacher : She is poor.

Pupil D: (*poor*) The woman who made that bag is poor.

Teacher : She has two sons.

Pupil E: (*two sons*) The woman who made that bag has two sons.

Teacher : She is coming to my house this evening.

Pupil F: (*is coming*) The woman who made that bag is coming to your house this evening.

The sentences containing relative clauses will be written on the board:

is your friend.

is called Sarla.

is old.

is poor.

has two sons.

is coming to your house this evening.

The woman who made that bag

We have also tried successfully the following technique to teach the relative clause beginning with *who* in the Subject position in the clause.

The teacher tells Idris to go to the door and then to come back to his seat and sit down. Idris does this. Then the teacher asks the class:

Did Hari go to the door?

Did Mohan go to the door?

Did Gopi go to the door?

..... ?

The pupils say, 'No, he didn't'.

Next, the teacher asks the class, 'Who went to the door?' The pupils say, 'Idris went to the door.' He then nods and says, 'Yes, Idris went to the door. Idris is the boy who went to the door.' The statement, *Idris is the boy who went to the door*, is written on the board and repeated by the pupils.

This procedure may be followed to arrive at and drill different statements containing the relative clause beginning with *who*, e.g. *Dipu is the boy who gave the teacher a pencil. Sita is the girl who wrote her name on the board. Gita is the girl who is going to Delhi next week. Dinu and Moti are the boys who were absent yesterday.*

The relative clause in which *who* in the Object position is generally omitted can be similarly taught.

The teacher goes and gives a book to Dinu who puts it into his bag. The teacher comes back to his table and says after a pause:

Did the teacher go to Hari?

Did the teacher go to Moti?

Did the teacher go to Rahim?

The pupils say, 'No, he didn't,' and then the teacher asks, 'Who did the teacher go to?' The pupils say, 'He went to Dinu.' The teacher nods and says, 'Yes, the teacher went to Dinu. Dinu is the boy the teacher went to.' *Dinu is the boy the teacher went to* is written on the board and repeated by the pupils. In the same way, the statement, *Dinu is the boy the teacher gave a pencil to* is arrived at, written on the board and practised by the class.

VIII

READING

THE Oral Approach to the teaching of English does not in any way ignore or belittle the importance of reading and writing. The latter are given their legitimate place in the scheme of teaching and are recognized as very important skills to acquire.

To the majority of pupils the ability to read well and fluently is the primary aim of learning English. Reading, however, is a means to an end, the end being to equip the learner with the ability to read not only English newspapers and periodicals but also books on scientific and technical subjects.

The teaching of English in our schools generally starts at the age of 11+ when the pupil has already mastered the mechanics of reading his own language. Although learning to read English involves learning a new script, that is not a major difficulty.

How do we read?

When we read, the eye moves along the line in jumps pausing momentarily at the end of every jump. We do not read when the eye is in movement but only when it pauses. The number of words which the eye can take in in one complete movement determines the eye-span. The knowledge of the physical process of reading has considerably improved the methods and techniques of teaching how to read. The reader does not read the word by spelling it. He does not, for example, recognize and interpret the word 'pencil' by breaking it up into its six different letters—p, e, n, c, i, l—and then synthesizing them to arrive at the word. He looks at the word and recognizes it by identifying it with a previous picture of the word. We, therefore, start the teaching of reading not by teaching the names of the letters of the alphabet but by teaching words as complete wholes. And the words, phrases or sentences that the pupils are taught are always those which they already know and can handle in different situations.

Reading is a specific skill. It does not come automatically with the ability to speak but has to be learnt carefully and methodically.

Preparatory Reading

The pupils have to read a text-book in the first year of English. Reading, however, does not start with the text-book. The pupils are first taught to read words, phrases and sentences from the blackboard and from flash cards. Preparatory reading starts with the reading of groups of words in the first week of oral teaching.

Example

The teacher teaches Point 3 in the Junior High School syllabus (*This/That is his/her+n*). When the pupils can handle the new point with confidence, the teacher draws the picture of a man on the board and writes *his nose*, etc. (the names of the different parts of the body already learnt) in printscript. He reads the words from top to bottom slowly pointing to the relevant parts of the picture and also to the relevant parts of any pupil's body. He then reads the groups of words in a different order picking them here and there. He makes the class whisper the words with him. Then he points to a word without articulating it and asks an intelligent boy to read it. The whole class then repeats the group of words looking at it. In this way all the words are read individually and by the whole class. They are not read in any fixed order. Then he rubs off the picture and asks the pupils to read the groups of words. This is a very useful device as it not only teaches reading but also drills the content words already learnt and fixes their spelling. The pupil gains confidence and is keen to learn the new language. Similarly, to fix *her+n*, the teacher can draw the picture of a girl in one corner of the board and write *her book, her cup, her pen* against the pictures of these objects.

Flash cards are also used for preparatory reading. The cards containing the phrases *her book, his leg, her pen*, are flashed (shown momentarily) before the class. The phrases are read by the class either individually or in groups.

In the same way, after teaching Point 7 orally, the teacher draws a few objects on the board and writes *an apple, an egg, a bag, a pencil* under them. When the pupils can read from the board, flash cards might be introduced. The teaching of groups of words prepares the ground for the teaching of sentences. The teacher adds *That is* to the groups of words already taught.

an apple.

That is an egg.

a bag.

a pencil.

The reading of *This is* should be interspersed with the reading of *That is*. The teacher can, for example, use a card with a picture of an apple drawn on it and *This is an apple* written under the picture. The picture should be taken near each pupil so that there is no confusion between the notions of nearness and farness.

Similarly, other phrases may be taught with the help of pictures, e.g. *in that bag, on my table, under the table, over the bridge*. The teaching of reading is initiated with the help of pictures or diagrams. Later on, however, pictures are not necessary.

During the first three or four months of oral teaching phrases or sentences are read from the blackboard every day. In the second and third months of teaching, substitution tables can be used to this end very effectively. Games may also be introduced to maintain the pupils' interest in reading. For example, (a) a card, naming an object in the classroom (*This is a table*), is given to each pupil who reads silently what is written on it, puts it against the object mentioned and then reads it aloud; (b) a command is written on the board (*Dinu, give your book to Dipu*) and the pupil whose name is written on it reads the order aloud and performs the action.

The course book is introduced when the pupils can read sentences from the board. The lessons in the book contain words and structures with which they are already familiar.

On no account should the pupils be asked to put their fingers under the words while reading, for this limits the eye-span to the length of a word and obstructs ease and fluency in reading. It also mars the rhythm and flow of the sentence by breaking it into unnatural parts. Teaching pupils to read whole phrases and then sentences prevents them from forming this bad habit.

IX

COURSE BOOKS

The First Year

Reading aloud has its place in life. We are sometimes asked to read aloud letters, articles from periodicals and bits of news from newspapers. The teacher, therefore, has not only to train pupils to read silently and to assimilate what they read but also to read aloud coherently and fluently. Reading in the first year will mostly be aloud.

The Reader will be introduced after the first 40 structures have been taught orally. The first lesson of the Reader—*Read and Learn, Book One*—contains the first eight structures which the pupils can already use in different situations and can also read and write. Reading of the text will, therefore, be easy, interesting and quick. Oral teaching will always be in advance of reading.

In schools where the *Read and Learn* gramophone records are available, the teacher plays the record of a lesson to the class two or three times and the pupils follow the text in their books. If the records are not available, the teacher reads the lesson clearly and correctly and using the appropriate stress and intonation patterns. The pupils read the text silently first and then a few bright ones read parts of it aloud. In this way, weaker pupils get an opportunity of listening to the correct reading of the passage. The teacher writes on the board the words that have been mispronounced. The pupils read them silently and then listen to the record again. The teacher then clearly enunciates the words and the pupils imitate him, individually and in groups. The lesson is then read in parts by a few more pupils. Variety is introduced by dramatization. In lesson 10, for example, different pupils are asked to read the conversation. Reading aloud helps the pupils to practise correct pronunciation and intonation.

The exercises given at the end of each lesson are done by every pupil in the class. The teacher explains in the mother tongue what the pupils are required to do in each of the exercises. To avoid mistakes they are first done orally and are then written out. The first set of exercises in each lesson consists of the new structures

introduced in the lesson. They are learnt by heart by every pupil. The last exercise in each lesson is a simple one of copying which may be done by the pupils after the relevant structure has been taught orally.

Two days a week may be given to the teaching of the course book. Gradually, however, the gulf between the structures taught orally and the structures used in each lesson is narrowed, as reading of the course book becomes quick and easy. Towards the end of the first year, therefore, there is close co-ordination between the oral teaching of the structures and the reading of the lessons containing them.

The Second Year

In the second year, the Reader is introduced after about two months' oral teaching. During the period of oral teaching, however, reading from the board of single sentences and sets of connected sentences is done. Reading of the course book is mostly silent, for it prepares the pupils for extensive reading with the introduction of the supplementary reader in the fifth month.

The teacher plays the records two or three times or, if the records are not available, he reads the text aloud. He then writes the difficult words on the board and says them correctly. The pupils imitate him saying the words, individually and in groups. They then read the first paragraph silently. The teacher puts questions on it to ascertain if the pupils have read the text intelligently. All the questions are based on facts—on the content of the passage. In this way, the pupils read all the paragraphs of the lesson silently and answer questions on them. The procedure to be followed for doing the exercises at the end of each lesson will be the same as in the first year.

The Third Year

In the third year, the Reader is introduced in the second month. The procedure for the reading of the text is the same as in the previous year. Reading is mostly silent though sometimes, both in the second and third years of English, reading aloud is introduced, especially if the text contains a dialogue. The sentences given at the end of each lesson under the caption *Learn these* are memorized by every pupil; the other exercises are done orally first and are then written out.

The teaching of the Reader in the second and third years may be correlated with the teaching of composition and supplementary reading. Pupils may be asked to relate stories read in the course book, to describe things (some Indian birds, how honey is made, etc.) or to write letters. The teacher must, however, suggest key-words and phrases.

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X

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

EVERY educated man reads newspapers, magazines and books. He does not, however, pore over each word or phrase. He reads quickly getting at the content of the piece. That is to say, the adult reader gleans the facts from the article or chapter that he reads without concentrating on the language in which those facts have been stated. He often comes across new words with which he is not familiar, but that does not impede his comprehension of the text, as the meaning of the word is illustrated by the context in which it is used. The aim of supplementary reading is to prepare pupils for this kind of reading. As reading for content is mostly silent, the teacher has to train pupils to read silently but intelligently—comprehending what they read. Incidentally, supplementary readers help to reinforce the language material already taught as they (*Read and Tell* and *Read for Fun* series) are graded in vocabulary, grammatical structure and content.

Supplementary reading can profitably be introduced about the middle of the second year of English, if not earlier, when the pupils have learnt some fundamentals of the language. The books for supplementary reading should be written in simple English which is already known to the pupils and their content must be interesting so that the pupils may enjoy reading them.

How to use the Supplementary Reader

The main aim is to teach the pupils to read quickly and with comprehension. The teacher may ask the pupils to read a story and then answer the questions given at the end of it. If there are any new content words in the story which are likely to impede comprehension, they may be explained (in the mother tongue if necessary) at the outset. Alternatively, questions may be written on the board and the pupils' attention called to these questions. They are then required to read the story and discover the answers as quickly as possible. Thus the interest of the pupils is aroused and their curiosity excited, and their reading becomes purposive.

A further exercise in comprehension is to give a list of meanings

and ask the pupils to find the words in the story with these meanings. It is best if the list of meanings is in the same order as the words as they appear in the story.

Supplementary readers may also provide material for oral and written composition. After the pupils have answered the questions on a set passage, they may be asked to narrate the story in parts. Whenever they hesitate or fumble for a word or expression the teacher helps them by asking questions. As the story is related, the key-words are written on the board. The points on the board should incorporate the structures given at the end of each story under the caption *Learn these*. These points will constitute the skeleton of the story. When the whole story has been related in parts, some pupils should be asked to relate the whole of it with the help of the words and phrases on the board. After the story has been reproduced orally it should be written out.

The teacher may also ask the pupils to describe the picture given at the beginning of each story.

XI

WRITING AND WRITTEN EXERCISES

LANGUAGE is used as a means of communication in both speech and writing. The pupil is taught how to handle the tools of the language first in speech and then in writing. Writing is not only a linguistic skill to be acquired for its own sake but it is also an important aid in fixing the language material already taught.

Teaching Writing

Teaching pupils how to write a piece of free composition is a long process though a rewarding one. Primarily, teaching how to write involves acquiring a manual skill—the skill of controlling the small muscles of the fingers and the wrist and securing co-ordination of the hand and the eye. Secondly, it involves doing various exercises in written work which cover a vast field ranging from copying phrases and sentences to composing long essays.

English is commonly introduced at the age of 11+ when the pupil has acquired the skill of writing his own language. Writing English involves knowledge of the Roman script but this need not worry the teacher. He can enlist the help of the Art teacher who should teach the pupils how to make quickly the letters of the English alphabet (first small letters and then capital letters). They should be put in groups according to their shape. F. G. French groups them in the following way:

o a c e d b g q p
m n h r f j l i t y u
w v x z k
s

Neither the Art teacher nor the English teacher (at the beginning) should tell the pupils the names of the letters of the alphabet, for it increases the load of learning and often leads to wrong associations between the letters and their sounds, which result in spelling mistakes. The letter 'a', for example, has several sounds æ as in kæt (cat); ə as in əfreid (afraid); a: as in bəna:nə (banana); ei as in keɪn (cane), and so associating 'a' with æpl (apple) only will cause confusion.

After the first week of oral teaching, reading phrases and sentences from the blackboard and flash cards is started. The phrases and sentences are written on the blackboard in printscript. (Printscript is used in the last exercise at the end of each lesson in *Read and Learn, Book One*.) When all the pupils can read a few phrases and sentences quickly and correctly, writing is introduced. Writing in the first three or four months of oral teaching is confined to copying. Pupils copy from the board the phrases and sentences which they can read. While the pupils are writing, the teacher goes round the class and helps them to form correct writing habits, for his aim is to train them not only to write English but also to develop a good handwriting. It is at this initial stage that pupils can be trained to write a bold, legible hand. Care should, however, be taken that they place the letters of a word together but leave adequate space between words. Copying is a very useful exercise as it (a) reinforces the new structure, (b) fixes the correct spelling of words and (c) helps the pupils to learn the conventions of writing—capital letters and punctuation.

Exercises in written English do not comprise only copying and the language exercises given at the end of the lessons in the course books. Pupils also write pieces of composition. Although in the initial stages of language learning a lot of emphasis is laid on oral composition, written composition is not ignored. Exercises in composition are graded and the pupils, starting with the construction of single sentences, are finally led on to writing narrative and descriptive pieces consisting of two or three paragraphs.

Some Graded Exercises in Written Composition

The sentence is the unit of speech, and composition, therefore, starts with the construction of sentences.

I. Construction of single sentences

(i) Pupils construct a few sentences from substitution tables drawn on the board. (See Substitution Tables for Structure Drills in *Drills and Exercises in English—Books One, Two and Three*.) Variety is introduced by leaving one or two columns of a table blank and asking the pupils to make a specific number of sentences by supplying suitable words in the columns left blank.

Example (Points 1 to 26)

Question: Supply *three* more words in each of the second and

fourth columns of the following table and write *four* different sentences from it:

My	brothers		playing		garden
Your	are	in the	playground
Dinu's		field
Sita's		room

Answer

1. Your sisters are singing in the garden.
2. Dinu's friends are sleeping in the field.
3. My brothers are playing in the room.
4. Sita's classmates are running in the playground.

(ii) Pupils change sentences

(a) from singular to plural:

This is my pencil.

These are my pencils.

(b) from positive to negative:

The children ate mangoes yesterday.

The children didn't eat mangoes yesterday.

(c) from positive to interrogative:

Sita is buying a book from Hari.

Is Sita buying a book from Hari?

(d) from Present Continuous to Simple Past or Simple Future:

Hari is writing a letter.

Hari wrote a letter.

Hari will write a letter.

(iii) Pupils answer questions:

What is your father's name?

My father's name is Mr Sharma.

When did you play football?

I played football the day before yesterday.

Did you read your lesson yesterday?

Yes, I did.

Will you come to school tomorrow?

Yes, I will.

- (iv) In the second and third years the pupils complete sentences by adding a few words:

My pens are in my hand and.....

My pens are in my hand and my pencils are in my bag.

Dinu is reading.....

Dinu is reading but Sita is playing.

A barber is a man who.....

A barber is a man who cuts hair.

This is the book which.....

This is the book which was stolen yesterday.

II. Construction of sentences in sequence

(i) Pupils write three or four sentences in sequence from sets of substitution tables drawn on the board. (See Sets of Substitution Tables for Composition in *Drills and Exercises in English—Books One, Two and Three.*)

(ii) Pupils describe different physical situations. The teacher helps them by making gestures and suggesting key-words. (See Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Books One, Two and Three.*)

Examples

(Points 1 to 10)

Pupil A: (*That*) That is Sita. (*friend*) She is my friend. (*verandah*) She is on the verandah.

(Points 1 to 36)

Pupil B: (*That*) That boy is Dinu. (*throwing*) He is throwing a ball to Sita. (*catching*) She is catching it. (*putting*) She is putting it into her bag. (*now*) It is in her bag now.

(iii) A few pupils do some play-acting and the others say what they are doing. (See Exercises IX 2, 3, 4, X 1, XI 3, 4 and XVIII 3 & 4 of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book One.*)

(Points 1 to 36)

Pupil A: (*postman*) That is the postman. (*coming into*) He is coming into our room. (*going*) He is going to the teacher. (*giving*) He is giving letters to the teacher. (*getting*) The teacher is getting them from him. (*going out of*) He is going out of the room now.

(iv) Pupils describe simple pictures. (See sets of Wall Pictures for the first and second years of English.)

Example

Wall Picture 1—THE SHARMA FAMILY (First Year of English)
(Points 1 to 26)

Pupil A: (*Mrs Sharma; Mr Sharma*) That woman is Mrs Sharma and that gentleman is Mr Sharma. (*wife; husband*) She is his wife and he is her husband. (*closing*) Mrs Sharma is closing the window. (*reading*) Mr Sharma is reading a book.

Wall Picture 2—COLOURS (Second Year of English)
(Points 1 to 80)

Pupil A: (*Those*) Those are two boats. (*one; the other*) One boat is big but the other boat is small. (*going down*) The big boat is going down the river. (*going up*) The small boat is going up the river.

III. Building up short paragraphs

(i) Pupils describe a picture in a short paragraph. (See Exercise 4 on page 37; Exercise 2 on page 44; Exercise 2 on page 51 of *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Two.*)

(ii) Pupils re-write a given paragraph

(a) changing its tense: (See Exercise XIV 1, 2 and 3 of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Two.*)

(b) changing the subject of the paragraph: (See Exercises VI, VIII 2 and XIII 2 of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three.*)

(iii) Pupils construct a paragraph on the basis of given key-words. (See Exercises 1, II and III of *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three.*)

(iv) Pupils construct a dialogue on the basis of given key-words. (See Exercises XIV, XV, XVI, XVII, XVIII, XIX and XX of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book One*; Exercises I; II; V 2, 3, 4; VI 3, 4; VII 4; XII 1; XIII 1, 2, 4, XV of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Two*; Exercises II; VII; IX of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three.*)

IV. Writing a short piece consisting of two or three paragraphs

(i) Pupils add a paragraph to a given one on the basis of given key-words. (See Exercises V 1 and XVII 2 of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Two*.)

(ii) Pupils write a narrative or descriptive piece with the help of given key-words. (See Exercises IV, IX, and XI 1 of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three*.)

(iii) Pupils write a descriptive piece on the lines of a given piece changing the subject but using the words underlined in the given piece. (See Exercises XII 1 and XIII 2 of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three*.)

V. Writing letters

Pupils write (a) personal letters, (b) invitations and replies to them and (c) applications on the lines of given samples. (See Exercises X 1, XI 2, XII 2, XVI, XVII and XVIII of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three*.)

VI. Reproducing and completing stories

(i) Pupils construct stories from a series of pictures.

Example

Wall Picture VI—THE MISER AND HIS TEACHER

The composition lesson should be correlated with lesson 16 of *Read and Learn—Book Two*. The teacher points to the first part of the picture and supplies the key-words, and the pupils describe it. He also sometimes asks questions to link the sentences. As the points of the story emerge, the teacher writes them on the board. The pupils read the story and then the teacher rubs out all but certain key-words, and the pupils write the story with the help of these words.

Part I

Teacher: That man is Lakhi Mall.

Pupil A: (*walking*) He is walking along the road.

Pupil B: (*wet*) The road is wet.

Pupil C: (*shoes*) His shoes are in his pocket.

Pupil D: (*clothes*) His clothes are old.

Teacher: Is he a miser?

Pupil E: Yes, he is a miser.

Teacher: What is this man telling Lakhi Mall?

Pupil F: He is telling him, 'Go to Karori Mall and be his pupil.'

The teacher writes on the board:

A man is walking along the road. His name is Lakhi Mall. The road is wet, so his shoes are in his pocket. His clothes are old. He is a miser. A man is telling him, 'Go to Karori Mall and be his pupil.'

Part II

Teacher: Lakhi Mall is with Karori Mall now.

Pupil A: (*going*) They are going into that shop.

Pupil B: (*vegetables and bread*) There are vegetables and bread in front of the shopkeeper.

Teacher: What is the shopkeeper telling Karori Mall?

Pupil C: He is telling him, 'My bread is as soft as butter.'

Teacher: Is Karori Mall a miser?

Pupil D: Yes, he is a miser.

Teacher: Will he buy any bread from the shop?

Pupil E: No, he will not.

Teacher: Where will he take Lakhi Mall?

Pupil F: He will take him to the butter shop.

The teacher writes on the board:

Lakhi Mall and Karori Mall are going into a shop. There are vegetables and bread in this shop. The shopkeeper is telling Karori Mall, 'My bread is as soft as butter.' But Karori Mall will not buy any bread. He will take Lakhi Mall to the butter shop.

Part III

Teacher: The misers are in the butter shop now.

Pupil A: (*a lot of*) There is a lot of butter in the shop.

Teacher: What is the shopkeeper telling the misers?

Pupil B: He is telling them, 'My butter is as fresh as the water of the Ganga.'

Teacher: What is Karori Mall telling Lakhi Mall?

Pupil C: He is telling him, 'His butter cannot be as fresh as the water of the Ganga.'

Teacher: Where will Karori Mall take Lakhi Mall now?

Pupil D: He will take him to the banks of the Ganga.

The teacher writes on the board:

The two misers are in the butter shop now. There is a lot of butter in the shop. The shopkeeper is telling the misers, 'My butter is as fresh as the water of the Ganga.' Karori Mall is telling Lakhi Mall, 'The butter cannot be as fresh as the water of the Ganga.' He is taking him to the banks of the Ganga.

Part IV

Teacher: Lakhi Mall and Karori Mall are on the banks of the Ganga now.

Pupil A: (*drinking*) They are drinking the water of the Ganga.

Teacher: What are the two misers having for dinner?

Pupil B: They are having the water of the Ganga for dinner.

The teacher writes on the board:

The misers are on the banks of the Ganga. They are drinking the water of the Ganga. They are having it for dinner.

(Note—The story can similarly be reproduced in the past.)

(ii) Pupils reproduce stories that they have read or have been told with the help of given key-words. (See X 2 of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three*.)

(iii) Pupils complete stories with the help of given key-words. (See Exercises XIII 1 and XV of Exercises in Continuous Speech in *Drills and Exercises in English—Book Three*.)

VII. Free composition

Free composition is attempted very sparingly in the first three years. Even in the fourth and fifth years of English, exercises in controlled composition are much more useful than exercises in free composition. In free composition there are no restrictions on the pupils' use of vocabulary and structure or on the length of the piece. The pupil is free to tackle the topic set for composition as he likes. This trains him to use language in writing for the communication of his thoughts, feelings and experiences.

The principle to be carefully followed by every teacher is that *oral work must precede written work*. This practice will considerably reduce language mistakes and will, in later stages, prevent pupils from introducing irrelevant details. It will also reduce the burden of marking of which so many teachers complain.

XII

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

Tests and examinations in English are valuable inasmuch as their results give an indication of the pupils' acquisition of linguistic skills and also help the teacher to assess the success of his teaching. But, unfortunately, they exert a far greater influence on teaching than the syllabus, and mould the teacher's methods and techniques of teaching.

Examinations are held at the end of a term or session whereas tests are given weekly, fortnightly or monthly. A test verifies progress made during a specific period of time. Therefore, questions in a test are based on the language material taught during that period. An examination, on the other hand, is a formal evaluation of the pupils' linguistic abilities, the aim being to find out whether the required standard of attainment has been reached or not.

While setting a test or an examination in English the following points should be borne in mind:

1. Learning English means acquiring four specific language skills—the skill of understanding English when spoken; the skill of speaking English; the skill of reading English and the skill of writing English. An examination in English should, therefore, test mastery of these four fundamental skills. Although it may not be feasible to make oral tests a part of public examinations, it is highly desirable that they should be introduced in every school to test pupils' ability to understand English when it is spoken and to speak English.

2. An examination at the secondary school level should aim at a fair and consistent estimate of the pupils' command of the essentials of the language; so in every examination question paper there should be a judicious combination of (a) *Objective Type Questions*, (b) *Questions requiring Short Answers* and (c) *Essay Type Questions*.

Examples

(a) Objective Type Questions

Question: Underline the correct words, from those given in

brackets, in the following sentences:

- (i) The children are (flying, grazing, playing, swimming) in the field.
- (ii) That woman is standing (in, at, between, under) the well.
- (iii) I have been working (since, for, by, till) 10 o'clock.

(b) *Questions requiring Short Answers*

Question: How do most people go from Bombay to Delhi?

Answer: They go by train.

(c) *Essay Type Questions*

Question: How did a Red Indian child get its name?

(The question is based on Lesson 10—*The Red Indians*—of *Read and Learn, Book Three*. The answer will require a paragraph.)

3. Questions should be clear-cut and precise so that pupils do not give irrelevant details. In questions on composition, the teacher should, in the Junior High School classes, control the answers. The pupils may be asked to write a piece of composition using given words.

Examples of *Oral* and *Written* tests are provided below. The answers of most of the questions are given in square brackets. In some of the questions other answers are also possible.

Examples of ORAL TESTS

Oral tests should be primarily those of (a) *Reading and Comprehension* and (b) *Expression*.

(a) *Test of Reading and Comprehension*

(i) The teacher says a few continuous sentences and then puts questions on them and the pupils answer the questions:

Teacher: Dinu's mother gave a rupee to him yesterday. He went to the bazaar. He bought apples from the fruit-seller. The fruit-seller sold apples to him. Dinu gave a rupee to the fruit-seller and put the apples into his bag.

Questions

Teacher: (i) Did Dinu's mother give two rupees to him yesterday?

(ii) When did Dinu go to the bazaar?

(iii) What did he buy?

(iv) Where did he put the apples?

(ii) The teacher asks the pupils to read a short passage or short story. While they read, he notes their pronunciation and intona-

tion. (If the pupils make any mistakes, the teacher must take the necessary remedial action.)

(iii) The teacher asks a few general questions and pupils answer them:

How old are you?

What is the table made of?

Did you have a glass of milk this morning?

(iv) The teacher gives orders, and the pupils carry them out and say what they are doing:

Put this book under the table.

Write your name on the board.

Pick up the duster.

(b) Tests of Expression

(i) The teacher performs some actions or refers to different physical situations and the pupils describe them:

(a) You are putting the newspaper into your bag.

(b) The umbrella is in the corner.

(ii) The teacher points to a section of a picture and the pupils describe it:

(Wall Picture 9—ON THE RIVER-BANK)

(a) The washerman is washing his clothes.

(b) The washerman's wife is rubbing soap on the clothes.

(iii) The teacher asks questions and the pupils describe the occupation:

Teacher : What is a fisherman?

Pupil A: A fisherman is a man who catches fish.

Teacher : What is a thief?

Pupil B: A thief is a man who steals.

(iv) The teacher asks the pupils to relate a story or an incident.

WRITTEN TESTS

These should test the following abilities:

I. Language

1. *Vocabulary*—(A) *Meanings of Words and Phrases*, (B) *Uses of Words and Phrases* and (C) *Spelling and Punctuation*. 2. *Phrase Patterns and Sentence Constructions*. 3. *Composition*

II. Comprehension of Words, Phrases, Sentences and Paragraphs

If there is sufficient variety in questions, the test will become

interesting to the pupils and they will be stimulated to think and produce satisfactory answers.

Examples of WRITTEN TESTS

(There are no questions on formal grammar. Questions on language, however, include questions on functional grammar, as the system of modern English grammar consists of word order, inflections of words and the use of function words.)

I. Language

1. Vocabulary—(A) Meanings of Words and Phrases

(i) Put in pairs words of the same class from the given list:
apples, eat, brother, tables, chairs, drink, oranges, sister
[apples and oranges; eat and drink; brother and sister; tables and chairs]

(ii) Put in pairs words of opposite meaning from the given list:
top; bitter; small; far; sweet; big; near; bottom
[top, bottom; bitter, sweet; small, big; far, near]

(iii) Put in pairs words and phrases of similar meaning from the given list:

to eat; to die; to admit; to oppose; to have a meal; to let in;
to go against; to pass away

[to eat, to have a meal; to admit, to let in; to die, to pass away;
to oppose, to go against]

(iv) Put in pairs words and phrases of opposite meaning from the given list:

a lot of; near; to awake; bring to an end; little; start; to fall asleep; a long way

[a lot of, little; a long way, near; bring to an end, start; to fall asleep, to awake]

(v) Write *four* associated words against each of the following:

Hospital—[doctor, nurse, patients, medicine]

School—[headmaster, teacher, pupils, books]

Post Office—[postman, letters, postcards, parcels]

Railway Station—[train, engine, station-master, platform]

Town—[houses, schools, shops, temples]

(vi) Write *four* words belonging to the class of each of the given words:

fruit—[mangoes, guavas, bananas, grapes]

vegetables—[potatoes, tomatoes, peas, beans]

animals—[cats, dogs, cows, buffaloes]

birds—[crows, kites, parrots, sparrows]

(vii) Complete the following sentences with suitable words from those given in brackets:

The crow has been (eating, drinking, drawing, chewing) water.
The postman is (going, coming, bringing, dancing) from the post office to me.

(viii) Complete the following table:

<i>father</i>	<i>mother</i>	<i>young one</i>
lion		[lioness, cub]
	bitch	[dog; pup]
bull		[cow; calf]
		chick [cock; hen]

(ix) Substitute a word for the words *italicized* in each of the following sentences:

The farmer sold all his *cows, bullocks and buffaloes*. [cattle]

There were many *sick people* in the hospital. [patients]

We went to the *place where games are played*. [playground]

(x) Make sentences using the following words:

right; write; through; threw; hare; hair; deer; dear; some; sum

(xi) Write a word against each of the following which has the same sounds as the given word and use it in a sentence:

Example: here—hear. A deaf person cannot hear.

blue; heard; sea; wait; meet

[blew; herd; see; weight; meat]

(xii) Combine words of List A with words of List B to form compounds, and use these compound words in sentences:

List A: tea; letter; river; flower; school

List B: compound; bank; pot; box; garden

[tea-pot; letter-box; river-bank; flower-garden; school-compound]

(B) *Uses of Words and Phrases*

(i) (a) Put *the*, if necessary, before the following words:

Mahatma Gandhi; floor; Himalayas; India; Ganga; nearest hospital; Indian army; Indian tea
[the floor; the Himalayas; the Ganga; the nearest hospital; the Indian army]

(b) Fill the blanks in the following sentences using *in*, *on*, *at*, *along*, or *across*:

Sita is standing the door. [at]
 The river is broad; I cannot swim it. [across]
 The teacher is his office. [in]
 The women are sitting the verandah. [on]
 That man is going the river-bank. [along]

(c) Put *a few* or *a little*, whichever is correct, before the following words:

butter; toys; boys; food; books; bread [a little butter; a little food; a little bread; a few toys; a few boys; a few books]

(ii) (a) Fill the blanks in the following sentences using *How much*, *too much*, *as much*, *so much*:

He paid for this book. [too much]
 He ate that he fell ill. [so much]
 milk do you drink every day? [How much]
 A pencil doesn't cost as a pen. [as much]

(b) Complete the following sentences using *someone*, *anyone*, *no one* or *everyone*:

There isn't in this room. [anyone]
 In England speaks English. [everyone]
 knows exactly when the world began. [No one]
 has just given that beggar a warm coat. [Someone]

(iii) From amongst the words given in brackets in the following sentences select the right ones and write out the complete sentences:

We (eat, ate, eating, eaten) the apples and (drink, drank, drunk, drinking) the milk.

They came here (in, on, till, at) April.

(iv) Substitute *yours*, *him*, *her*, *hers*, *mine* or *his* for the words in italics in the following sentences:

I talked to *the gentleman* but I didn't talk to *the lady*. [him, her]

There is more milk in your bottle than in *my bottle*. [mine]

The pencils were *the boy's* but the books were *the girl's*. [his, hers]

(v) Substitute different but suitable words for the word *nice* in the following phrases:

a nice man; a nice journey; a nice dress; a nice apple; a nice house; a nice sum; a nice day; nice food
 [a friendly man; a pleasant journey; a pretty dress; a ripe

apple; a comfortable house; a large sum; a sunny day; delicious food]

(vi) Complete the following sentences with different words ending in—ly:

Sita sang . [sweetly]

In the evening, the farmer walked to his house. [slowly]

The women talked at the meeting. [loudly]

The kind lady spoke to the beggar. [gently]

(vii) Make sentences combining words of List A with appropriate words of List B:

List A: to take up; to take off; to take after; to take upon;
to take over; to take into; to take to

List B: coat; father; responsibility; confidence; smoking cigarettes; job; charge

[Mr Sharma will take up a new job.

He will take off his coat when it is hot.

Dinu takes after his father.

Sita has taken upon herself a new responsibility.

My father took me into his confidence.

Hari has taken to smoking cigarettes.]

(viii) Supply question-tags to each of the following:

Sita is your friend, [isn't she?]

Your mother makes dolls, [doesn't she?]

You will go to the cinema with me, [won't you?]

Sita can't speak French, [can she?]

You didn't go to the cinema last evening, [did you?]

(C) *Spelling and Punctuation*

(i) Give the Past forms of:

(a) rob; fit; wrap; clap [robbed; fitted; wrapped; clapped]

(b) mend; prove; repeat; move [mended; proved; repeated; moved]

(c) spend; learn; mean; burn [spent; learnt; meant; burnt]

(d) teach; bring; buy; think [taught; brought; bought; thought]

(ii) Put *ei* or *ie* to complete the following words:

This box w...ghs five seers. [ei]

There are many pat...nts in the hospital. [ie]

You must sit qu...tly in the class. [ie]

The eldest son is usually the h...r. [ei]

(iii) Complete the following words by adding—*er* or —*or*:
teach...; doct...; sail...; ord...; tail...; [er; or; or; er; or]

(iv) Give one word for each of the following meanings. The word should have a silent letter. Underline the silent letter:
sixty minutes; complete; faultless; perfume; be unable to believe or trust

[hour; whole; perfect; scent; doubt]

(v) Write out the following sentences using the correct words from those in brackets:

(two, too, to) of my friends will accompany me [two, too, to]
the cinema this evening. [Two.....to.....]

I will (pour, poor) another cup of tea for you. [I will pour....]

He has become very (week, weak). [He.....weak.]

I have (seen, scene) her somewhere. [I have seen.....]

(vi) Give the plural forms of:

(a) horse, mango, potato, buffalo
[horses, mangoes, potatoes, buffaloes]

(b) baby, lady, fairy, duty
[babies, ladies, fairies, duties]

(c) woman, tooth, foot, mouse
[women, teeth, feet, mice]

(d) loaf, calf, knife, wife, wolf
[loaves, calves, knives, wives, wolves]

(vii) Put commas, full stops, capital letters and question marks in the following sentences:

sita gita and i are going to dinu's house today

is the boat going down the river

yes i will buy apples oranges and guavas from hari this evening

how will you travel to bombay

[Sita, Gita and I are going to Dinu's house today. Is the boat going down the river? Yes, I will buy apples, oranges and guavas from Hari this evening. How will you travel to Bombay?]

(viii) Dictation. The words in the passage to be dictated should be known to the pupils. In order to minimise the chances of the pupils making mistakes in writing, they should be allowed to study the passage before it is dictated.

2. *Phrase Patterns and Sentence Constructions*

(i) Supply *four* suitable words in the blank column below and then write *six* different sentences from the table:

My	friends				garden
Your	cousins	are		in the	playground
Our	brothers				field
Their	sisters				room

[playing; singing; sleeping; walking
 My friends are playing in the garden.
 Their sisters are singing in the room.
 Our cousins are sleeping in the field.
 Your brothers are walking in the playground.
 My cousins are playing in the field.
 Their friends are sleeping in the room.]

(ii) Write *six* correct sentences from the following table:

These	apples cows sticks boys girls	are	cleverer taller bigger sweeter longer	than	those
-------	-------------------------------------------	-----	---------------------------------------------------	------	-------

[These apples are sweeter than those.
 These cows are bigger than those.
 These sticks are longer than those.
 These boys are taller than those.
 These girls are cleverer than those.
 These boys are cleverer than those.]

(iii) Write *two* sentences of each of the following patterns using appropriate words instead of the words in italics:

Ram is *young* but his father is *old*.

[Ram is tall but his father is short.

Ram is fat but his father is thin.]

Sita *wrote* a letter *yesterday*.

[Sita got a letter the day before yesterday.

Sita posted a letter this morning.]

The boys have been *doing their lessons* since 10 o'clock.

[The boys have been reading English since morning.

The boys have been playing football since 5 o'clock.]

(iv) Select the right word from those given in brackets in the following and write out the complete sentences:

A few of those books (are, is) interesting. [are]

Every house in this street (have, has) been sold. [has]

Each of us (was, were) given a prize. [was]

Everyone in Allahabad (has, have) been to the Sangam. [has]

(v) Complete the following sentences:

The thieves attacked him before.....

[The thieves attacked him before he could get his gun.]

Sita will read this book if.....

[Sita will read this book if you give it to her.]

He fell ill because.....

[He fell ill because he ate a lot of sweets.]

That is the necklace which.....

[That is the necklace which my father gave me.]

(vi) Ask questions to get the following answers and then put the answers into the negative:

Yes, Mr Sharma killed a bear last year.

[Did Mr Sharma kill a bear last year?

No, Mr Sharma did not kill a bear last year.]

Yes, I can write French.

[Can you write French?

No, I cannot write French.]

(vii) Frame questions beginning with the given interrogative words to get the following answers:

My father is a doctor. (What)

[What is your father?]

The green books are mine. (Which)

[Which books are yours?]

I went to Delhi to see my sister. (Why)

[Why did you go to Delhi?]

(viii) Put the following groups of words in the right order to make correct sentences:

went to the market/The milkman and his son/milk and butter/to sell.

[The milkman and his son went to the market to sell milk and butter.]

are drawing water/from the well/The women

[The women are drawing water from the well.]

sweets/fruit/Dinu/ and Dipu/ is buying/ is buying

[Dinu is buying sweets and Dipu is buying fruit.]

(ix) Combine the following sentences as in the example:

Example

That book is on the table. It is green.

The book on the table is green.

Those girls are at the gate. They are my friends.

[The girls at the gate are my friends.]

That pencil is under Sita's bag. It is blue.

[The pencil under Sita's bag is blue.]

That house is beside the river. It is Hari's.

[The house beside the river is Hari's.]

(x) Combine the following sentences using the link word given against each:

Yesterday I met a soldier. He fought in the last war. (who)

[Yesterday I met a soldier who fought in the last war.]

I like the picture. You showed it to me. (which)

[I like the picture which you showed me.]

Alladin opened the door of the cave. He saw some bags of gold. (when)

[When Alladin opened the door of the cave, he saw some bags of gold.]

(xi) Transformation of sentences

(a) Write the following sentences in the plural:

The milkman sold his cow, his buffalo and his goat.

[The milkmen sold their cows, their buffaloes and their goats.]

There is a cup of tea and a bottle of milk on the table.

[There are cups of tea and bottles of milk on the tables.]

(b) Rewrite these sentences in the appropriate tense using the word or phrase given in brackets:

Dinu is singing in the garden. (yesterday)

[Dinu was singing in the garden yesterday.]

I went to my village. (tomorrow)

[I will go to my village tomorrow.]

I live in Allahabad. (since 1958)

[I have lived in Allahabad since 1958.]

The farmer is working in the field. (for three hours)

[The farmer has been working in the field for three hours.]

(c) Supply a question-tag to each of the following statements:

Your father is a doctor.

[Your father is a doctor, isn't he?]

Sita has read this book.

[Sita has read this book, hasn't she?]

Your brother went to Kanpur yesterday.

[Your brother went to Kanpur yesterday, didn't he?]

Dinu can speak Bengali.

[Dinu can speak Bengali, can't he?]

Dipu won't play football tomorrow.

[Dipu won't play football tomorrow, will he?]

You haven't seen the Zoo at Lucknow.

[You haven't seen the Zoo at Lucknow, have you?]

(d) Write the following in Reported Speech:

Dinu said, 'I am hungry.'

[Dinu said he was hungry.]

My brother said, 'I will go to England in 1970.'

[My brother said he would go to England in 1970.]

(xii) Use the following phrases in sentences:

at the door; at 10 o'clock; on the wall; along the road; in the dark; at sunset; up the stream; through the forest

(xiii) Complete the following sentences with words from the given list:

a long way; a lot of; for; since; enough

Dinu worked three hours yesterday. [for]

The merchant has money for himself and his family. [enough]

I have been teaching 10 o'clock. [since]

I saw pigeons in the field. [a lot of]
 Madras is from Allahabad. [a long way]

(xiv) Ask questions beginning with the given words to get the following answers:

He spoke to his father. (Who)

[Who did he speak to?]

Dinu's mother lives on fruit and milk. (What)

[What does Dinu's mother live on?]

Dinu picked up my handkerchief. (What)

[What did Dinu pick up?]

(xv) Complete the following sentences:

I went to school to.....[see my brother]

The boys are buying tickets to.....[see the match]

The girls worked hard to.....[pass the examination]

The men have come to.....[play cricket]

(xvi) Select the correct words from those given in brackets in each of the following and write out the complete sentences:

These are (your, yours) books. [your]

This house is (Dinu, Dinu's). [Dinu's]

Do you want (his, him) to come to your house? [him]

I don't want (Dinu's, Dinu) to eat so many sweets. [Dinu]

(xvii) Complete each of the following sentences in three different ways by answering questions beginning with *Why*, *When* and *How*:

Example

I went to the garden.....

I went to the garden to play with my friends.

I went to the garden last evening.

I went to the garden on my bicycle.

The doctor came to Dinu's house.....

[The doctor came to Dinu's house to see his father.

The doctor came to Dinu's house at 10 o'clock.

The doctor came to Dinu's house in his car.]

Sita went to Bombay.....

[Sita went to Bombay to see her friend.

Sita went to Bombay last month.

Sita went to Bombay by train.]

3. Composition

(i) Write a piece of composition using the given words:

It afternoon. gardener's family garden.
 gardener sitting by tree smoking pipe.
 wife by him talking son reading
 under daughter sleeping by side.

[It is afternoon. The gardener's family is in the garden. The gardener is sitting by a tree and is smoking a pipe. His wife is sitting by him and is talking to him. Their son is reading a book under a tree. Their daughter is sleeping by his side.]

(ii) Write a dialogue between Dinu and Dipu using the following key-words:

Dinu: Mahatma Gandhi born?

Dipu: 2nd October, 1869. Where ?

Dinu: Porbunder in Gujarat. When go school?

Dipu: in 1876

[Dinu: When was Mahatma Gandhi born?

Dipu: He was born on 2nd October, 1869. Where was he born?

Dinu: He was born in Porbunder in Gujarat. When did he go to school?

Dipu: He went to school in 1876.]

(iii) Write the following passage in the Simple Past:

The washerman and his wife have been working on the river-bank. They have been working there for six hours. The washerman has been washing clothes and his wife has been spreading them in the sun.

(iv) Write a passage like the one given below on *Dinu Buys Fruit* using the words in italics:*Gopi Buys Vegetables*

Yesterday Gopi's servant was ill. He could not go to the bazaar and bring vegetables. So Gopi's mother gave him some money and he went to the bazaar.

The vegetable-seller was selling potatoes, tomatoes, peas and beans. Gopi told him that he would buy either potatoes or tomatoes. The vegetable-seller showed him some big potatoes and red tomatoes. Gopi looked at the tomatoes and said, 'Neither my mother

nor I like such ripe tomatoes as these.' He did not buy any tomatoes. He only bought a seer of potatoes and half a seer of peas.

(v) Add a paragraph to the following using the given key-words:

Mohan is my friend. His sister is my friend too. Their father is a doctor. He is a rich man. He has a big house and a beautiful car.

Mohan dog but sister hasn't . had dog
ran away. She cat now. friend gave her.
cat nose tail.

[Mohan has a dog but his sister hasn't one. She had a dog but it ran away. She has a cat now. Her friend gave it to her. The cat has a black nose and a pretty white tail.]

(vi) Write a letter to your uncle inviting him to your school on the 15th of next month at 3 P.M. to see a football match in which you will be playing.

(vii) Write a story with the help of the given words:

The Grapes are Sour

hot summer's day. fox along path
jungle. thirsty but no river or
there. Suddenly saw bunches grapes vine.
said himself, ' eat grapes and then
won't be so . jumped but couldn't
too high. several times but
walked away saying , 'sour.'

[It was a hot summer's day. A fox was walking along a path in the jungle. He was very thirsty but there was no river or stream there. Suddenly he saw bunches of ripe, juicy grapes on a vine. He now said to himself, 'I'll eat those grapes and then I won't be so thirsty.' He jumped but he couldn't reach them. The grapes were too high. He jumped several times but failed to reach them. He then walked away saying to himself, 'Those grapes are sour.']

II. Comprehension of Words, Phrases, Sentences and Paragraphs

(i) Select the most suitable word or phrase from those given in brackets in the following and write out the complete sentences:

(a) Ravi is a fruit-seller. He always gives short measure. He is (cruel, hard, dishonest). [dishonest]

(b) While Sita was picking roses, a thorn (hurt, stung, pricked) her. [pricked]

- (c) Ravi came home at midnight. It was dark. He could not see the door and so he (put off, put on, put out, put into) the light. [put on]
- (ii) Give *one* word for each of the following:
The house made for honey-bees. [bee-hive]
The man who saves a lot of money and spends very little. [miser]
- (iii) Read the following passage and then pick out the correct answers to the given questions and write them in your notebooks:

Ali Baba was a poor wood-cutter. He cut wood in the forest and sold it in the market every day. One day he saw forty strong men riding on their horses in the forest. They were thieves. Ali Baba was afraid and so he climbed a tree and hid himself in its branches.

- (a) Who was Ali Baba?
He was a thief.
He was a strong horseman.
He was a poor wood-cutter.
He was a rich shopkeeper.
- (b) What did he do every day?
He cut wood in the forest and sold it in the market every day.
He rode on a horse every day.
He climbed a tree every day.
He stole other people's things every day.
- (c) What did he see in the forest?
He saw some men running in the forest.
He saw someone cutting wood.
He saw forty strong men riding on their horses.
He saw a dozen horses.
- (d) Who were the forty strong men?
They were wood-cutters.
They were hunters.
They were thieves.
They were merchants.
- (e) How did Ali Baba hide himself?
He ran into a cave and hid himself.

He stood behind the trunk of a tree and hid himself.

He lay down in the grass and hid himself.

He climbed a tree and hid himself in its branches.

AN EXAMINATION QUESTION PAPER FOR THE FIRST YEAR OF ENGLISH

Time—2½ hours

Maximum marks—35

Read and Learn, Book One

1. A washerman is washing clothes on the bank. His wife is on the bank too. She is rubbing soap on the clothes. His donkey is eating grass there. The donkey will carry the clothes on his back to the washerman's house. The washerman will iron them there, and his wife will cook their food.

Read the above passage, and then read the questions and the answers to them given below. Select the correct answers and write them in your answer-book:

- (i) What is the washerman washing on the river-bank?
 - He is washing his donkey on the river-bank.
 - He is washing his face on the river-bank.
 - He is washing vegetables on the river-bank.
 - He is washing clothes on the river-bank.
- (ii) Where is the washerman's wife?
 - She is in her house.
 - She is on the river-bank.
 - She is in the garden.
 - She is under a tree.
- (iii) What is she rubbing on the clothes?
 - She is rubbing grass on the clothes.
 - She is rubbing sand on the clothes.
 - She is rubbing soap on the clothes.
 - She is rubbing chalk on the clothes.
- (iv) Where is the washerman's donkey?
 - He is in the river.
 - He is in the washerman's house.
 - He is in the garden.
 - He is on the river-bank.

- (v) What will the donkey carry on his back?
 He will carry the washerman on his back.
 He will carry the washerman's wife on his back.
 He will carry the clothes on his back.
 He will carry grass on his back.

- (vi) Where will the washerman iron the clothes?
 He will iron them in his house.
 He will iron them on the river-bank.
 He will iron them in the garden.
 He will iron them in front of his house. (9)

2. Complete the following sentences with words from the given list: (6)

writing; eating; playing; catching; drinking; ploughing

The horses are	water.
The farmers are	their fields.
Dinu is	a letter.
The boys are	volleyball.
My friends are	mangoes.
The fisherman is	fish.

3. (a) Write the following words correctly using *ei* or *ie*: (3)
 . . ght; fr . . nd; n . . ce; pr . . st; rec . . pt; th . . r.

(b) Put full stops, questions marks and capital letters where necessary:

i will go to my village
 where will you go
 is dinu your friend (3)

4. Make *two* sentences of each of the following patterns substituting appropriate words for the words in italics:

- (i) I *read* a *poem* yesterday. (4)
 (ii) The children will *play* in the *garden*.

5. Ask questions beginning with the given words to get the following answers:

- (i) I will eat mangoes tomorrow. (When)
 (ii) Sita's book is on my table. (Where)
 (iii) Yes, I bought an apple yesterday. (Did)
 (iv) My friend's name is Hari (What) (4)

6. Write a short paragraph using the given words:

*That man Gopi and that Leela.
farmer and wife. They in field.
working there. Gopi ploughing field and
sowing the seed. (6)*

A short oral test of 15 marks should also be given to the pupils. It is suggested that (a) 5 marks may be allotted to reading, (b) 5 to comprehension and (c) 5 to expression.

- (a) Pupils may be asked to read a short piece. While the pupils are reading, the teacher should note their pronunciation of words, intonation of sentences and speed in reading.
- (b) Pupils may be asked either to answer questions based on the above text or to answer some general questions.
- (c) Pupils may be asked to describe a physical situation or a picture.

AN EXAMINATION QUESTION PAPER FOR THE SECOND YEAR OF ENGLISH

Time—2½ hours

Maximum marks—35

Read and Learn, Book Two

1. In 1575 Akbar came to Prayag with his friend Birbal. He saw the place and liked it. He built a big, strong fort on the banks of the Yamuna near the Sangam and gave the name Allahabad to Prayag. Allahabad was one of the biggest provinces of the Mughals and its governor was always a prince or a big 'amir'. The fort of Akbar at Allahabad was as strong and beautiful as the Red Fort at Delhi. A part of the building is still there.

(a) Read the above passage, and then read the questions and the answers to them given below. Write the correct answers in your answer-book:

- (i) Did Akbar come alone to Prayag?

Yes, he came alone to Prayag.

No, he came with all his friends.

No, he came with Birbal.

No, he came with all his army.

- (ii) What did he build on the banks of the Yamuna?
 He built a palace on the banks of the Yamuna.
 He built a house on the banks of the Yamuna.
 He built a fort on the banks of the Yamuna.
 He built a mosque on the banks of the Yamuna.
- (iii) Which was one of the biggest provinces of the Mughals?
 Allahabad was one of the biggest provinces of the Mughals.
 The fort at Allahabad was one of the biggest provinces of the Mughals.
 Agra was one of the biggest provinces of the Mughals.
 Lucknow was one of the biggest provinces of the Mughals.
- (iv) Who was always the governor of Allahabad?
 A prince was always the governor of Allahabad.
 An 'amir' was always the governor of Allahabad.
 A prince or a big 'amir' was always the governor of Allahabad.
 A brave soldier was always the governor of Allahabad.
- (v) How strong was the fort at Allahabad?
 It was as strong as the Red Fort at Delhi.
 It was as strong as a stone-house.
 It was as strong as the Qutb Minar. (5)
 It was as strong as a brick-wall.
- (b) Pick out words from the above passage which are the opposite of the following: (3)
 went; enemy; weak; smallest; never; ugly

2. Select suitable words from the given list to complete the following sentences:

- Less; wheat; sailing; water; taller; building; making; much
 a necklace.
- (i) The goldsmith is milk in this jug.
 (ii) There isn't up the river.
 (iii) The boat is than Kamu.
 (iv) Sita is in the farmer's bag. (5)
 (v) There is some

3. Make five different sentences by combining the words from List A with suitable words from List B:

List A—red, long, a little, thin, many

List B—balls, farmer, apple, milk, pencil (5)

4. Write the Past forms of the following words:
listen, make, eat, sail, teach, bring, bite, call, drive,
reply. (5)

5. Ask questions to get the following answers and then put the answers into the negative:

Example

Yes, I will swim in the river tomorrow.

Will you swim in the river tomorrow?

No, I will not swim in the river tomorrow.

(i) Yes, I have a glass of milk every morning.

(ii) Yes, Sita can speak English.

(iii) Yes, the boys are playing volleyball.

(6)

6. Write a short piece of composition on 'The Milkman' using the given words:

The Milkman

Alopi milkman. has cows and
 buffaloes. sells also makes
 Every morning comes
brings in buckets. mother seer
 from for

(6)

An oral test of 15 marks should also be given along the lines suggested for the first year of English.

AN EXAMINATION QUESTION PAPER FOR THE THIRD YEAR OF ENGLISH

Time—2½ hours

Maximum marks—35

Read and Learn, Book Three

1. The farm-house was about a hundred years old and was a large, solid building. It was very different from the farm-houses which Dinu and Dipu had seen in India. The small garden in front was full of flowers and the big garden which stretched behind the farm-house was full of all kinds of vegetables for the kitchen. All around were other buildings; the building which was used for storing hay and straw was called a barn, the building which

was next to the dairy was the cowshed, and the shed which was on the other side of the farmyard was full of ploughs and tractors and other farm machinery. Because it was the harvest season the farmer was cutting the wheat in the large field near the farmhouse.

(a) Read the above passage and then answer each of the following questions in a sentence:

- (i) How old was the farm-house?
- (ii) How many gardens had it?
- (iii) What was grown in the big garden?
- (iv) What was the barn used for?
- (v) Which building was next to the dairy?
- (vi) Why was the farmer cutting the wheat? (6)

(b) Write words from the passage which mean the following:
 strongly built; keeping for use in the future; dried stalk of grain;
 place for making butter and cheese; tool for cutting and turning
 up the soil; cutting and gathering in of crops (3)

2. Write the following sentences using one word for the words in italics:

Example

Hari went to *the place where things are bought and sold*.

Hari went to *the market*.

- (i) The doctor came to Allahabad by *a machine that flies in the air*.
- (ii) After a year the man came to *the house where his wife and children live*.
- (iii) He *made up his mind* to work hard. (4)
- (iv) The cows were *eating grass* in the field. (4)

3. Ask questions beginning with the words given in brackets to get the following answers:

- (i) I have been working since 10 o'clock. (How long)
- (ii) I like the bicycle which is in the corner. (Which)
- (iii) The women went to the river to bathe. (Why)
- (iv) Dinu came to school on his bicycle. (How) (4)

4. (a) Write the following words correctly by adding *our* or *ure*:
 f... , meas... , fut... , col... (2)

(b) Punctuate the following correctly:

have you finished your work mr sharma asked no i haven't answered the girl (2)

5. Write these sentences in Reported Speech:

- (i) The farmer told me, 'I will sow the seed next week.'
- (ii) Mr Sharma told my friend, 'I have brought sweets for you.'
- (iii) Sita asked me, 'When did you make that garland?'
- (iv) My uncle asked me, 'Have you been to the zoo?' (4)

6. Write a stanza of any poem you have learnt. (4)

7. Write a letter to your aunt telling her when your school closes for the summer holidays and that you wish to visit her. (6)

An oral test of 15 marks should also be given along the lines suggested for the first year of English.



READING LIST

In addition to the books mentioned in Chapter V the reader will find the following of interest and help:

PAUL ROBERTS	Patterns of English	Harcourt Brace
C. C. FRIES	The Structure of English	Longmans
A. S. HORNBY	A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English	O. U. P.
A. S. HORNBY	The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns, Stages One and Two	O. U. P.
F. G. FRENCH	The Teaching of English Abroad, Parts I-III	O. U. P.
A. W. FRISBY	Teaching of English	Longmans
P. GURREY	Teaching English as a Foreign Language	Longmans

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Drills and Exercises in English, Book I (for the use of teachers of Class VI)	1.00
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A Set of 240 Flash Cards for Class VI ..	10.00 per set
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Teaching English—A Handbook for Teachers ..	2.50